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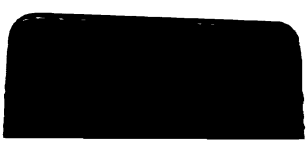

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A MONTHLY MAGAZINE

OCTOBER, 1897, TO MARCH, 1898

Volume XXVI.—New Series, Volume XVII.

Dr. THEODORE L. FLOOD, Editor

MEADVILLE, PA.
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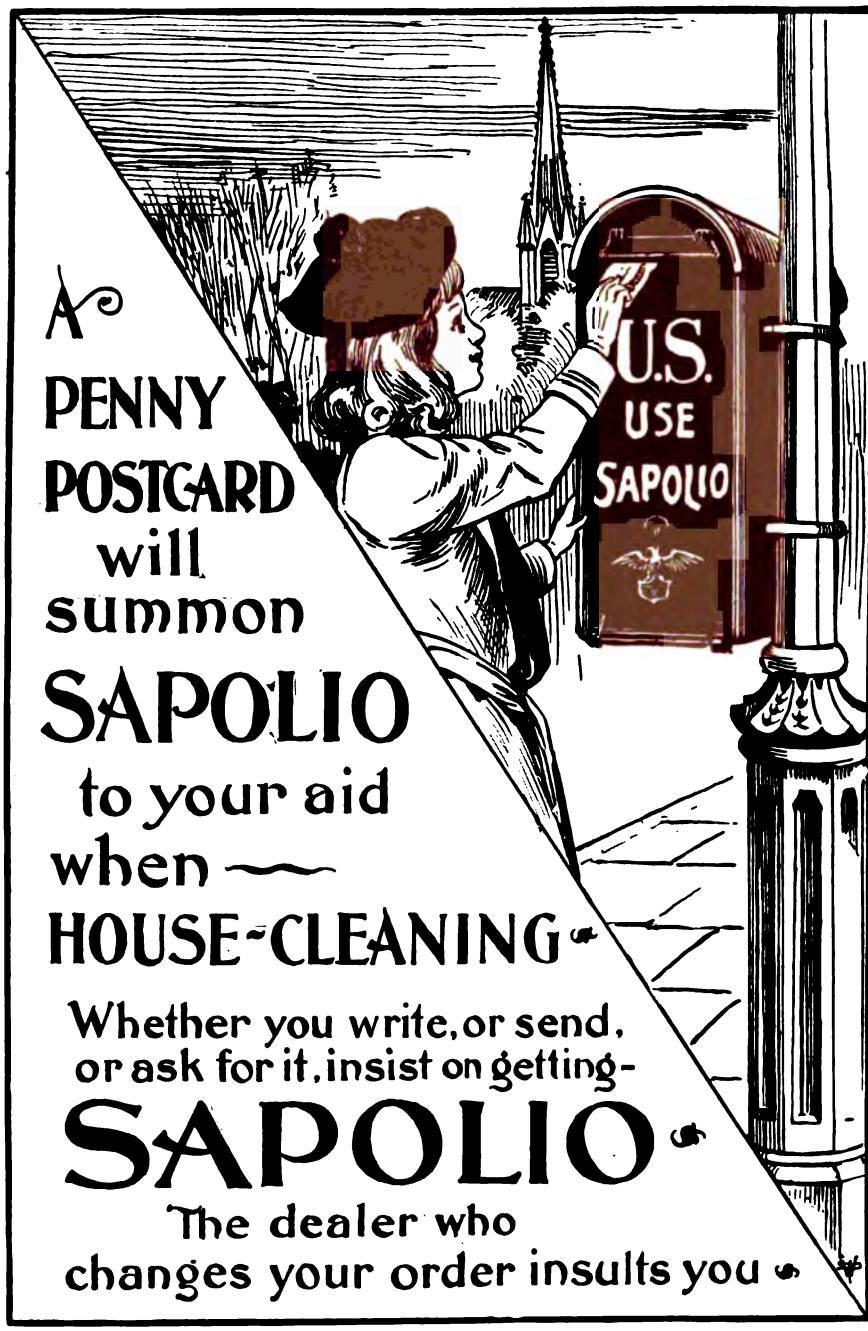

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HON. JOHN G. BRADY, GOVERNOR OF ALASKA, WITH HIS WIFE AND CHILD.

See page 54.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

VOL. XXVI. OCTOBER, 1897 No. 1.

SEP 29 1897

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

AWHEEL IN GERMANY.*

BY H. E. NORTHROP, A. M.

PROFESSOR OF GERMAN AT THE BROOKLYN POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE.

THE bicycle has taken such a firm hold upon the public, both at home and abroad, that a brief account of the present conditions of bicycling in Germany may prove of interest to lovers of the wheel and of value to those contemplating a bicycle tour through the "Fatherland." And the number of Americans touring Germany on bicycles is increasing at an astonishing rate. Old travelers have taken up the wheel with the belief that the bicycle is the ideal vehicle for foreign travel, in that it permits the tourist to stop at will, to study, sketch, or photograph the choice bits of scenery which are met so unexpectedly in all parts of the land and many of which are lost to those who travel by rail.

EQUIPPED FOR THE START.

There are many cogent reasons for making the tour of Germany on a bicycle, but the following should suffice for the cyclist: The roads are invariably good, some of them well-nigh perfect. The hotels, though often plain, are nearly always comfortable. The scenery, especially in the southern portion, is picturesque and the inhabitants are almost always courteous to strangers. The expense of cycling in Germany need not be great, especially if one live as the Germans do, taking the light coffee breakfast quite early before starting, the lunch at about 11:30, and dinner at half past six or seven. For the last two meals, "take the goods the gods provide." Though sometimes plain, they are usually palatable and always well served.

Until recently bicycling was regarded by most Germans as a passing fad, the temporary pastime of a few eccentric people. To-

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

AN EXAMPLE OF CONTINENTAL HIGHWAYS.

day, however, it is rapidly winning its way throughout the nation, and will soon be a well-nigh universal recreation. The reason of this sudden popularity of the wheel among a people so cautious in adopting new things is somewhat different from that which has made us a nation of cyclists. We have simply added bicycling to our many other out-of-door sports, bringing to the pastime that enthusiasm and energy which is peculiarly characteristic of our race. The Germans, however, have had but few sports outside of bowling, fencing, and the gymnastic exercises of the *Turnverein*.[1] Hence the delights of bicycling came to them almost as a new discovery. It is precisely what was needed to satisfy the universal demand for out-of-door exercise. The splendid roads, built for military purposes, offer the German bicyclist opportunities far beyond what we have in our country, and it is undoubtedly only a question of a few years when the largest portion of German "vacation travel" will be done awheel. To be sure, the aristocracy and the wealthy classes may be loath to allow bicycling to encroach upon the time-honored sports of horsemanship and the chase; but for the great mass of the people those are forbidden pleasures, since maintaining horses is far more expensive abroad than with us, and hunting is permitted only to those who own game preserves, or lease them, usually at high prices.

One of the pleasantest features of bicycling in Germany is the almost universal kindness of other bicyclists to foreigners. As we meet these wheelmen speeding along the highway, seldom do they pass us without giving utterance to the familiar "All' Heil" or "Guten Tag."[2] If one comes to grief *en route* it is more than likely that the passing wheelmen will dismount and offer assistance. When questioned as to routes, hotels, and other details of travel, the ready helpfulness of most German bicyclists is indeed admirable. It is safe to say that if an American wheelman does not have a de-

lightful journey through the "Fatherland" it is his own fault.

Perhaps the most frequent question put to a wheelman on his return to the United States after a European tour is: "How many miles did you ride per day?" It may surprise some to learn that the average tourist, awheel in Europe, makes far shorter runs than the same man is accustomed to in our own country; and that, too, in lands where the excellence of the great national highways and the topography of the country offer every facility for long-distance wheeling. The intelligent wheelman finds such a succession of points of historic and scenic interest on every hand which he is reluctant to pass by without at least partial examination that the day is gone before he has covered more than a moderate distance. And the tourist is wise to go slowly, for if we Americans have one fault in traveling it is in attempting to cover too much country in a given time, returning to our own land with a jumble of confused impressions which we have not had time to arrange in the mind in an orderly manner. If one studies, even superficially, the country through which he wheels, he can be well satisfied with an average of twenty-five or thirty miles daily. If, however, he is entirely familiar with the scenes traversed, and makes the tour primarily for the mere pleasure of wheeling, as we do in our parks, then it is surprising what runs can be made over the superb roads of Germany. Two of my friends, for example, who have wheeled over Europe nearly every summer for the last ten years, tell me that a year ago they averaged eighty miles a day for two months.

A FACE TO REMEMBER.

A FAIR FACE SEEN AS WE PASS.

In all bicycling in Europe, perhaps the most vexatious question is that of puncturing the tires. It is the part of wisdom to take along at least one extra pair, for it is not always easy to secure a new tire to fit an American wheel. The cause for so many punctures is easily found. The German peasants wear either wooden or heavy leather shoes protected by short hobnails. These nails, or tacks, are constantly being left on the highways, to be picked up by the unfortunate wheelman. Especially is this true in the Rhine Valley. Indeed it seemed to us that a large part of the German nation must have been tramping up and down the

A FAMILIAR ROADSIDE SCENE.

river, leaving behind so many nails that we picked up some of them nearly every day. There is a fortune awaiting the man who will furnish Europe with a really puncture-less tire, and thus relieve the tourist of his one great anxiety in bicycling abroad.

A CONTINENTAL FRUIT SELLER.

In planning a bicycle tour the question at once arises, Shall one take his own wheel with him, or purchase one abroad? It is true that by securing a wheel in Europe one is always nearer the source of supplies, in case of accident, and also can much more readily secure tires that fit; but few Americans will be content to use foreign machines, because of the excessive weight. Although Europeans have such fine roads, we know that they still persist in building all their vehicles in a ponderous style. Their carriages are nearly twice the weight of similar American conveyances, and unhappily the same rule has been applied to the bicycle. Wheels in Europe are seldom subjected to more than a fraction of the strain that our machines must sustain almost daily, yet nearly all the continental bicycles are cumbersome and heavy beyond all reason. A very few patterns, and, of course, the racing machines, are quite light, but one frequently sees wheels weighing fifty pounds or more, and only rarely any bicycle approaching the American machine in lightness and elegance. The old solid tire is still in use, and the cushion tire is quite frequently seen. Indeed there is considerable to be said in favor of the cushion tire, in a land having such smooth roadways, garnished with such astonishing quantities of tacks and nails. The American wheel is rapidly winning its way in Europe because of its lightness and

superior strength, weight for weight. A few years ago scarcely any of our wheels were found in Europe. To-day they are seen in nearly every important town. The number exported has increased manifold in the last five years.

Before leaving America the tourist should be sure to have his bicycle fitted with a good brake. In some portions of Germany the law explicitly states that "each bicycle must be provided with an easily managed brake, operating quickly and powerfully." No one can fully enjoy the beautiful coasts so often met with, especially in southern Germany, without feeling that he has a reliable brake. The only accident of any moment which happened to the party of American bicyclists shown in the accompanying cut (a party which, under my guidance, made a tour of about ninety days through England, France, Switzerland, and Germany) was to a young man who had no brake upon his wheel. He was an expert wheelman and relied upon using his foot as a brake, but he was severely thrown on a coast of several miles' length.

A CONTINENTAL FLOWER GIRL.

Every American who contemplates a bicycle tour of Germany should become a member of the German bicycle clubs, which

A PAUSE BY THE WAYSIDE.

ONE OF THE HOMES WE PASS AWHEEL.

correspond to the League of American Wheelmen in our own country and to the Cyclists' Touring Club of England. Membership in these organizations not only insures the foreigner exceptional courtesies from other members throughout the land, but also secures for him a very substantial rebate from schedule prices at the league hotels. A list of these hotels is furnished members, together with the reduction to which one is entitled as a league member.

There was a time when, at many hotels, the bicyclist was made to feel that he was most assuredly *persona non grata*.[3] Now all that is changed. With the rapid increase in the number of bicyclists there has sprung up a keen competition among the Bonifaces[4] to secure the lucrative patronage of the wheelmen, profitable not alone in supplying food for the ever hungry cyclist—and most bicyclists acquire phenomenal appetites—but still more in allaying the universal and astonishing thirst of those who journey awheel. Some wheelmen in Germany, as with us, refrain from all beverages when riding, but the vast majority drink a great deal. As most Germans seldom partake of water, demanding either beer or wine, it

A MOTHERLY FACE THAT LOOKS OUT AT US.

is readily seen that the consumption of such liquids is enormous. When we remember that on the Continent the "corner saloon" is infrequent and that the sale of wine and beer is a part, and often the chief part, of the business of most restaurants and many hotels, we can comprehend why it is that there has taken place throughout Europe such a revulsion of feeling regarding the once unwelcome wheelman. To-day the bicyclist, with his insatiable thirst, is received with open arms by nearly all German landlords. It is sad, but true, that bicycling in any country vastly increases the demand for stimulants. It seems strange that, while the wheel has been unjustly blamed for many evils, no more prominence has been given to the fact that bicycling, as carried on by very many, is a distinct aid to the liquor-dealer and a real factor in the temperance question. Even a superficial glance at many of our own "Bicyclists' Rests" will verify this observation, while any one who has tried knows how difficult it is to secure good, cool water or fresh milk while wheeling over the splendid roads of Europe.

The introduction of the railway led to the gradual abolition of stage routes and the system of posting. The quaint old post-houses lost their prosperity and many of them ceased to exist altogether. But now comes the bicycle, reviving the whole posting system; and is it not more than probable that the wheel may rejuvenate these very same old wayside inns? To the American who prefers novelty to luxury, and is willing to forego many of his accustomed comforts for the sake of the insight he gets into the life and habits of the country people, the queer and cosy taverns of the German villages are a constant source of delight. In the Black Forest, in the picturesque valleys of the many streams tributary to the Rhine, as the Moselle, the Nahe, the Neckar, in Saxon Switzerland, in the Harz Mountains, in the Bavarian Alps, and, in fact, in almost any portion of Germany at all removed from the general current of travel, the tourist frequently meets with types of primitive men and women, interesting in themselves and because of their quaint dress. One may travel a long while, however, without seeing any of these strange examples of local attire, for peasants, as a rule, no longer wear these costumes in daily life, but reserve them for state occasions and their many festivals.

A word of warning to prospective tourists may not be inopportune concerning some of the peculiar laws of the Fatherland. However arbitrary or strange the rule of the present emperor may appear to us, it is the part of wisdom to avoid giving expression to our opinions when among Germans. Germany is very far from being a land of the free, and freedom of speech, as we understand it, seems to be under the ban of the ever active police. They have a law making it a misdemeanor to criticize the emperor or his acts—a law so elastic that it can be evoked to cover almost any criticism of government and may be used at any time to land the indiscreet bicyclist behind the bars.

Nor would the intervention of our American representative at the locality be of much avail in such a case, for Germans are as quick as Americans to resent any outside interference with the operation of their laws. Even in free Switzerland I once saw an American bicyclist arrested and fined for jumping on a train in motion. It seems to an American amazing that the intelligent and highly educated Germans acquiesce in, and even heartily support, such stringent laws, but the people as a whole believe in just this sort of "strong" government. The Germans are, above all, conservative, and they do not have a free land such as ours, with popular government, because as a nation they do not want it. Perhaps they remember only too well the scores of petty and cruel despotisms into which their land was once divided, and prefer a single monarch, even though eccentric and autocratic. Many of the recent acts of their emperor have tried the remarkable patience of this law-abiding race almost beyond endurance.

To us the regulations affecting bicyclists in some portions of Germany are an-

noying, or ludicrous, as the case may be; but some of them are extremely sensible. In Berlin and some others of the large cities the wheel is still looked upon as a menace to public safety and comfort, and is excluded by law from many of the principal streets. All resident wheelmen must take out a license and carry their number conspicuously placarded on the wheel. The Germans are nothing if not thorough. Nothing is taken for granted. Hence, in some cities, Munich for example, the candidate for a license must go before a board of commissioners and prove that he can mount, ride, and dismount from his wheel to the satisfaction of the committee before he is given his number and allowed upon the streets. Every wheel, just as every other vehicle, must carry a light after dark. All riders must keep on the right side of the street. Wheelmen must not ride more than two abreast, and in some streets even that is forbidden and all must ride "Indian file." One rule we could well adopt and carry out. "Scorching" in or near any town is absolutely prohibited. So thoroughly is this law enforced that our familiar nuisance of the "scorcher" is practically unknown.

The roads in Germany are of admirable quality for three reasons: (1) They are built by the government and hence no village bunglers are allowed to waste the public funds in producing makeshift lanes, as with us. (2) The national highways are constructed by skilled engineers, according to the latest scientific principles, and have deep and solid foundations of stone. (3) Every mile is under constant supervision and defects are carefully repaired as soon as they are found. (4) The grades are gradual. If a hill or mountain is steep, the road, often cut out of the solid rock, preserves its even slant and ascends the elevation by a series of long zigzags which are often splendid specimens of engineering.

In Germany, as elsewhere, the enjoyment of the tourist is much in proportion to his knowledge of the language, geography, literature, and history of the country. Unless familiar with these it is wise to travel with those who thoroughly know the country; for, in bicycling, the tourist is off the beaten track much of the time, and there is a great deal in knowing how to travel. Those who undertake a foreign tour for the first time naturally wish to profit by it to the utmost, to escape its annoyances as far as possible, and to enjoy it to the full from day to day. To do this one should put himself under the guidance of a person who not only has traveled and speaks the different languages, but who knows what to see and how to see it, has good executive ability, and last but not least knows the character of the country accurately enough to determine the points at which it is wise to utilize the trains to reach the highest land, thus interspersing the cycling with a series of glorious coasts and long down-grade runs.

Regarding routes to be taken through Germany, that is largely a matter of personal taste, and depends much upon the length of time at one's disposition and the chief objects of the tour. Any one competent to travel alone, or to conduct a party, can make up a most inviting route that will include the chief scenic features of the country, filling in charming side-excursions as weather and opportunity permit. One should by all means include the tour of the Rhine Valley. If one has abundant time, excursions into some of the side valleys will well repay the extra cost. If possible one should wheel through some of the picturesque valleys of the Harz Mountains. Beautiful scenery and superb roads will be found through the Black Forest and in Saxon Switzerland, while a tour of the Bavarian Mountains will compensate for the extra effort of hill work. And it is a mistake to always wheel in level countries. The different sets of muscles brought into play in a rolling country and the splendid coasts so often enjoyed make wheeling in the mountains far less wearisome than some persons suppose it to be. If one has the requisite time, a run down the "Beautiful Blue Danube" and through the Salzkammergut region of Austria will open up scenery scarcely to be surpassed even in Switzerland.

LUTHER'S INFLUENCE ON LITERATURE.

BY PROFESSOR DANA CARLETON MUNRO, A. M.

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IN order to understand what Luther's influence was, it is necessary to enter into some general considerations. If we should treat of his activity alone, apart from the general trend of the Reformation, or if we should look only at what he accomplished, without taking into account the difficulties under which he labored, we would do injustice to his services. In fact, this brief paper must be largely a consideration of the work of the Reformation in this respect. But, as Luther is the central figure and dominating influence in the Saxon Reformation, it is not unfair to assign to him the chief responsibility for the results accomplished.

"The Reformation . . . was not, primarily, a theological, a religious, an ecclesiastical movement at all. It was part of a general awakening of the human intellect, which had already begun in the fourteenth century and which the revival of classical learning and the invention of the art of printing urged on with accelerating rapidity in the fifteenth. It was the life of the Renaissance infused into religion, under the influence of men of the grave and earnest Teutonic race." These men, and foremost among them Luther, sought to break the fetters which had been placed upon the human intellect by the hands of authority and tradition. They desired freedom to judge the facts and opinions amid which they lived. They were determined to examine the phenomena of nature, not in a spirit of rebellion against religion, as had been done so often in the past, but devoutly and with the single purpose of attaining the truth. Leaving aside the accretions of centuries, they returned to what they considered the sources of true religion, the Old and the New Testaments, and were determined to make these the foundations for all their work. On these they would build a new system into which all the facts, as they interpreted them, would fit and which would, wholly divorced from the authority and traditions of the Middle Ages, correspond to their two criteria, the authority of the Scriptures and of human reason. These statements, although they must be modified later, express truly their general attitude.

It is evident that these men would have little interest in the so-called "pagan Renaissance." They were seeking something which they considered vastly more important. Luther speaks of the teaching of Greek as a "childish lecture" and urges Melancthon to devote himself wholly to the Holy Scriptures. Literature, as an art, could awaken no sympathetic chord in the breast of a German reformer. The light Italian nature might find pleasure in the refinements of language and the beauties of style; the earnest German sought only the substance.

Luther was the central figure in the movement. "A peasant and the son of a peasant," as he was proud to state, he was one of the people and carried them with him. A scholar and the associate of the leading scholars of the age, he brought to the service of the cause the force of his intellectual ability. As an orator he convinced his hearers; a man without fear, he braved the threats of diets and emperor. But, above all, the strength of the whole movement in Germany was its religious motive, and this Luther fostered as could no other man.

It was not merely that he was himself intensely religious and that he devoted his life to the cause; it was due far more to the fact that he supplied for his countrymen the material on which to build and maintain their faith. His German Bible penetrated to every village, almost to every household. It was expressed in homely language and

became a possession of the people. It is wholly impossible to estimate its influence. It was in the vernacular, so that it was possible for all to understand it; by the agency of the printing-press it was made extremely cheap. In many households it was the one book which the family possessed. To most of its readers and hearers it had been practically unknown. In addition to supplying their religious needs, it opened to them all its wealth of story and poetry and imagery. A nation was being educated from the Bible.

Luther's hymns, which were written directly for the common people, were sung everywhere and some of them have been for nearly five hundred years the familiar property of all German-speaking nations. We need only mention "Ein' feste Burg"[1] to show how great their influence has been and what a power for good Luther set in motion. Again in his prayers and catechisms, by the deliberate use of popular phrases and proverbs, he reached the hearts of his countrymen and taught them to pray and to believe.

If Luther had contributed nothing else, his service to literature would have been great because by his Bible and other writings he furnished a literary standard and the language which has become the literary tongue of the German people. Scholars in his day wrote many different forms of German; to-day all scholars use Luther's German. Döllinger, "a lifelong opponent of Protestantism," said of Luther:

> He has given to his people more than any other man in Christian ages has ever given to a people: language, manual for popular instruction, Bible, hymns of worship. . . . Even those Germans who abhorred him as the powerful heretic and seducer of the nation cannot escape; they must discourse with his words, they must think with his thoughts.

To have shaped one of the chief literary tongues of mankind would be glory enough for a less able man, but it is only one of the lesser jewels in Luther's crown.

To understand his influence in other respects we must consider his attitude on leading questions of the Reformation. We have already spoken of the rejection of authority and tradition and of the exaltation of the Bible. But the movement did not stop here. Luther proclaimed that the Bible was easy to understand. He rejected the medieval notion that the Scriptures had three or four senses, of which the literal was the least important, so that only students profoundly versed in the art of extracting the hidden allegorical meaning could explain what the Bible actually taught. "The Holy Ghost," he said, "is by far the most simple writer and speaker that is in heaven or on earth; therefore his words can have no more than one most simple sense, which we call the scriptural or literal meaning." By this he proclaimed the principle that each one was to study the Bible and ascertain its meaning for himself.

Luther went still further. Although he maintained the essential unity of the Bible and upheld its authority, he proceeded to apply his own tests. He considered the parts of varying worth. The Old Testament was to be interpreted by the gospels, and of the latter the fourth was the most important. "John's gospel," he says, "St. Paul's epistles, especially that to the Romans, and St. Peter's first epistle are the right kernel and marrow of all books." And he adds: "Therefore is St. James' epistle, in comparison with these, a mere letter of straw, for it has nothing evangelical about it."

In his "Table-Talk" he compared the form of the book of Job to that of the comedies of Terence; he wished that the book of Esther did not exist; he said the story of Jonah was "more lying and more absurd than any fable of the poets"; adding, "If it did not stand in the Bible I should laugh at it as a lie." Luther criticized reverently and never intended that others should use the same freedom that he did. But of this later; it is sufficient for our purpose now to indicate how fully he had opened the way for modern thought. This is the chief influence exerted by Luther on literary activity in general. The most progressive modern scientific thought is only following the lines laid down by him. For, if one is to use his reason in estimating the value of the most sacred subjects, obviously he is to try and estimate all things else by the standard of

his own judgment. By the impulse which he had given to the current, Luther had made it impossible for himself or any one else to dam up the waters. "When thought is once encouraged to activity, who shall prescribe limits?"

Literature is used in the title of this article, as our readers will have noted, not as a narrow technical term, but in a broad generic sense. Since we have adopted the latter meaning there is another side to Luther's influence which must not be neglected, and this is his aid to education. In his "Address to the Councilmen of All the Towns of Germany," in 1524, he told much of the character of the schools in the past and outlined what he wished to have done in the future. He said:

I do not ask for the establishment of such schools as we have had hitherto, where our young men have spent twenty or thirty years over Donatus[3] or Alexander, and yet have not learned anything at all. We have now another world and things are done after a different pattern.

And again:

Alas! How often do I lament my own case, in that I read so few of the poets and historians when I was young, and that there was no one to direct me to them. But, in their place, I was compelled to flounder in all manner of vain philosophies and scholastic trash, true Serbonian bogs[3] of the devil, and with much cost and care, and vast detriment beside, so that I have had enough to do ever since in undoing the harm they did me.

In the last passage it is interesting to note his commendation of "the poets and historians," that is, the pagan classics, which were still regarded as unclean by the rigid ecclesiastics. Luther was thoroughly liberal in his ideas about education, as expressed in this address. He wished the languages, Latin, Greek, and Hebrew, to be the main subjects of study because of their importance for the understanding of the Holy Scriptures, but he included in his plan every branch of learning. He urged the establishment of libraries of "sterling books," books commended by learned men, and says:

In the first place, the Holy Scriptures should be there, in Latin, Greek, Hebrew, and German; also in all other languages in which they might be contained. Next, I would have those books which are useful in learning the languages; as, for example, the poets and orators, and that without asking whether they are pagan or Christian, Greek or Latin. For from all such are we to learn grammar and style. Next, there should be books pertaining to the liberal arts, and likewise treatises on all the other arts, and on the sciences. And lastly, books on jurisprudence and medicine; though here, too, a wary choice is to be exercised. But foremost of all should be chronicles and histories, in whatever languages we could procure them; for these are of singular usefulness, to instruct us in the course of the world and in the art of government; and in these, too, we may see the manifestations of God's wonderful works.

It would be easy to multiply examples, but these passages illustrate the liberalizing tendencies which Luther brought into education and show how much the future of literature was indebted to him.

When Luther held such opinions, why was it that the immediate results were so meager? Why was it that Erasmus[4] complained, "Wherever Lutheranism reigns, there good letters perish"? It was due partly to the fact that Luther's practice lagged behind his theory. He claimed the utmost freedom of interpretation for himself, he was unwilling to grant it to others. He used his own reason to the fullest extent, he refused to allow others to do the same. He had many cruel things to say of human reason, and frequently placed it in opposition to faith, as something to be despised by a Christian. The liberty of thought and speech, the very corner-stone of the Reformation, which he claimed for himself, he was unwilling to allow to others. As his actions dictated the intellectual conditions of the time, the ground was not favorable to pure literary activity, which needed freer conditions.

But there was another reason for the decline in letters, and this was mentioned at the beginning of this paper. All the interests of the reformers were centered in religion. Philological studies were neglected. Even Melancthon referred to this neglect with sorrow. All the attention was devoted to developing a dogmatic theology. The Aristotelian dialectics were again pressed into the service. The result was a system which was not very dissimilar to the old medieval scholasticism. The Bible, as the

reformers interpreted it, was the basis of this system and from it they attempted to find authority for all their beliefs. Melanchthon was even more influential in this than Luther. The "Loci Communes" of the former became the symbolic commentary of the new faith. This work increased rapidly in bulk and finally included quotations from the fathers and the schoolmen, in order to prove the truth of the new doctrines. Next to Luther's productions the "Loci Communes" was the chief literary product of the reformers and it is indicative of the character of almost all their work. When we look only at the immediate results of their labors it is difficult to deny the charge that they "crushed out the life of the church."

One result of their exclusive devotion to dogmatic theology was an almost entire lack of toleration. The rupture between Luther and Zwingli on non-essential matters was one of the saddest episodes of the period. But this was only one of the instances. Men who differed from Luther, Calvin, or Zwingli were as remorselessly persecuted as heretics had been in the past. Each reformer distrusted all who differed from his own interpretation of facts and of the Bible. Each felt that it was a life-and-death struggle and wished to present a united front to the enemy. From this desire arose restrictions on literary activity which amounted to practically a "censorship of the press." The attempts to fix the lines along which freedom of thought should move restricted all freedom.

For these reasons literature declined in Germany under the influence of the Reformation. Yet we think that we should be unjust if we did not assign as the main reason for its decline the absorption of the best minds in theological matters, rather than any measures of repression adopted by the reformers. Even in the universities, which have been generally the theaters of revolt against illiberal measures, the students devoted most of their time to theological studies. Erasmus complained that it was easier to find lecturers on the liberal arts than students to listen to them.

We believe that this argument will be strengthened by a glance at the state of literature in other countries. The lack of freedom in Germany was not as entire as in Catholic Spain at the same epoch. Yet the golden age of Spanish literature dates from the middle of the sixteenth century. Cervantes, Calderon, Lope de Vega[5] flourished under conditions as restrictive to intellectual productions as those in Germany at the same epoch. In fact, although intellectual freedom was probably not greater elsewhere in Europe, with the single exception of the England of Shakespeare, than in Germany, in almost every other country we find a literature far in advance of that in Germany. It is especially instructive to note that the leadership in the humanistic movement passes from Italy to Holland and France. When we observe all of these facts we believe that the engrossment of the best intellects in other interests is the main cause for the condition of letters in Germany at that period.

Thus far we have been treating for the most part of the immediate results of Luther's influence on literature. When we turn to the more remote results the interest increases. In the fulness of time the devotion to dogmatic theology diminished. Men began to turn back to the liberal studies which had been so influential in bringing about the Reformation. When the interest in these studies revived, Germany was in several respects most favorably situated for a large measure of freedom of thought and for a rapid and brilliant development in literature.

In the first place the country was divided into so many separate political and religious units that no policy was general throughout the land. There were always havens of refuge to which a man persecuted for his opinions could flee. But even more influential was the fact that in a large part of Germany Luther's name and utterances were idolized. Now it was easy, as we have already indicated, to urge the authority of his writings for every liberal movement that arose, and finally the education which he had fostered slowly but unmistakably did its

work in liberalizing the minds of his people.

The result was that while Germany was still hopelessly divided politically, and at times crushed under the iron heel of despotism, she became the intellectual leader of Europe. We think that we can, without exaggeration, refer this result to Luther's influence more than to any other one factor. The Germans have idolized his memory, they have spoken his language, they have thought his thoughts, and they have borrowed from his writings, in each generation, the most liberal ideas which they were able to grasp.

THE BUILDING OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE.

BY HAMBLEN SEARS.

FRANCIS II. of Austria, the last of the emperors of the "Holy Roman Empire," resigned his office in 1806 and thus gave the death-blow to that medieval union of independent principalities in Central Europe which had endured since the days of Charlemagne. In 1815, therefore, when after the fall of Bonaparte the diplomats came together in Vienna to rearrange the map of Europe, no one proposed a return to this antiquated system. A closer union was wanted. Germany must be reunited, and consequently after the diplomats had secured what they could for the governments they represented they tried to settle upon some plan for the government of what was left unattached.

This territory was composed of the small principalities which lay north of the Italian provinces and south of the German Ocean. None of them rated as great powers, yet all were independent. The difficulties in the way of a satisfactory settlement lay in the fact that each principality possessed its own traditions of government, its own civil and military codes, handed down through centuries, and each objected strenuously to any plan of absorption on the part of the two Central European powers, Austria and Prussia, though all wished to unite with them in order to secure their assistance in time of need. Furthermore, the French Revolution and all the questions of modern life to which it gave prominence had had their effect in Germany, as elsewhere in Europe. The liberal spirit of progressive men demanded a united German Fatherland; and beneath the material views of the kings, princes, electors, and grand dukes there lay a patriotic enthusiasm among the people for a united country, both forces urging people and aristocracy toward some form of union that should be stronger than the old empire.

The Congress of Vienna finally succeeded, therefore, in forming the German Confederation, which included Prussia and Austria, with all the principalities, and gave Denmark and the Netherlands a voting membership. The following year the German Diet met at Frankfort as the representative assembly of the governments of the Confederation. This German *Bund*, or Confederation, was thus the first stone laid in the foundation of the present German Empire.

Had it not been so weak an affair the difficulties of half a century might have been avoided. But from its very nature it is evident now, as it was then, that nothing of lasting value could come of it. The whole question of its success or failure hinged upon the settlement of what was to be the power to enforce its decrees. It was not a union of peoples. There was no representative quality in it so far as the inhabitants of the thirty-nine states which composed it were concerned. It was a union of the rulers of these states, and when a decision was reached by a vote of the Diet the duty of carrying it out lay with the sovereigns, and its efficacy depended on their willingness to support their representatives. Nothing could absolutely bind a member.

Austria and Prussia, having even then so much stronger armies than any of the other members, held the balance of power in their own hands and the rivalry between

them gradually created two distinct parties in the Confederation. Austria wished to secure control of the Confederation, as she had of Hungary and the other Danuban provinces, and to dictate a policy of monarchical government for the whole country. Prussia, on the other hand, wished to found a strong union of the members of the Confederation with herself at the head, excluding Austria altogether. Those favoring these two views became known as members of the Great German and the Small German parties, and they opposed one another from 1816 until the final exclusion of Austria from the Confederation in 1866, at the close of the Austrian War.

The idea of government changed materially during these fifty years, and in an indirect way the development of the part that the people should play in their own government assisted the conception of a representative monarchy, to the disadvantage of the monarchy pure and simple. Its beginnings appeared even at the Vienna Congress, and from 1816 to 1820 the people of the different German principalities struggled successfully to secure for themselves some form of representative government. In Saxe-Weimar, Charles Augustus, the grand duke, accorded his people a constitution in 1816. One was promised in Prussia but not granted. Bavaria secured one two years later, and the conception of representative government began to spread. The times were not ready for it, however. The success of the people in obtaining constitutions led them to fanaticism. Acts of vandalism occurred from time to time, and on the murder of the Russian agent Kotzebue for his writings and speeches against free thought in Germany a universal reaction set in.

Some time before, the czar Alexander of Russia had persuaded the king of Prussia and the emperor of Austria to form an alliance with him for the protection and furtherance of the Christian religion and the maintenance of peace in Europe. This "Holy Alliance," as it was called, became the means by which Metternich could extend his conservative ideas through Central Europe and put down all movements toward individual free thought and liberal education. In 1819, after the death of Kotzebue, he called a meeting at Carlsbad and persuaded the potentates to undertake a general suppression of the new movement which was spreading throughout Germany. The press was forthwith put under censorship in the different duchies and kingdoms. Universities were brought under state control and a force of secret police was organized to bring to light and destroy intrigues, societies, and organizations tending toward the development of liberalism and representative government; but the spirit of free thought went on fermenting more than ever under this oppression, until finally in 1830 it broke forth again, set on fire by the July revolution in Paris.

The modern idea that any man has a right to think as he chooses, and to express his mind, the modern conception of government in which the people have some share of the responsibility, could not be kept down for long. When it did burst forth it ran riot again and furnished further excuse for more summary measures on the part of those who agreed with Metternich in his belief that the only way to govern was to allow the people to learn nothing. Riots consequently occurred again in 1830 throughout the country. Brunswick, Hesse, Saxony, and Hanover, all were scenes of bloodshed resulting in the granting of constitutions. Outbreaks occurred in 1832 in Hambach, Bavaria, and in Frankfort, but the South German governments, which as a rule approached more nearly to the constitutional monarchies, were less affected.

Again the enthusiasts went too far and furnished excuse for the reactionary policy that followed. Yet the ferment became ever stronger and the consciousness grew in each man's mind that some other form of government was necessary, that the times had outstripped old systems, and that new difficulties demanded new treatment. With the revolution in Paris in 1848 another progressive movement spread over Central Europe. This time Vienna fell into the hands of the mob and Metternich was forced to fly, never to return to power again. The people of

Berlin followed the example of those of Vienna. A general demand for a more representative government was made and thus elections were finally held all through the country for a National Assembly which met at Frankfort in that year. This was to unite the Fatherland at last, for the representatives were chosen by the people rather than the government. It numbered over five hundred strong and elected John, archduke of Austria, administrator. But the same difficulty arose at the start. Who was to carry out the Assembly's decrees? It possessed no more power with which to enforce its decrees than had the Diet, and one was as susceptible to the Austrian influence as the other. This Assembly might vote what it chose; it could carry out nothing. Hence when revolutions arose it voted them down, but nothing else could be done; and again Austria and Prussia were the only members possessing the power to carry out its vote and preserve order.

One thing, however, had been accomplished. A general conviction began to spread that it must be a federal state and not a federation of states that should unite the German people into the Fatherland; but it was twenty years before this became a possibility, and only then because a sufficiently strong and vigorous head for the federal estate appeared.

The growth of Prussia from 1850 to 1864 is the key-note in this development of the real head of the empire. By 1849 the Prussian government had promulgated a constitution and the standing of Prussia in the Confederation improved materially on account of this. Reaction having again set in with the demand on the part of Austria for a renewal of the Diet, Prussia opposed the movement with more vigor than heretofore. The king went so far as to form a union of the kings of Saxony and Hanover with himself to draw up the beginnings of the federal state. Austria held aloof from this conference and demanded the reorganization of the Diet. Several meetings took place, but nothing came of them. Prussia, with her Union of Princes, opposed Austria with her plans for the Diet, the South German states siding with the latter and some of the North German with the former. Czar Nicholas gladly acted as arbiter and gave his influence on the side of Austria. The Diet was, therefore, reopened in August, 1850, Prussia declining to join, and hostilities soon broke out when Prussia opposed the action of the new Diet in forcing its decrees in the North German principalities. Here again, however, Frederick William IV. let an opportunity go, and at Olmütz, in November, he gave up his plan of the federal state and rejoined the Diet, which was reestablished in 1851.

At this point the German principalities were practically where they had been in 1815. The situation needed a powerful force with a great mind directing it to make a settlement of the case by force, and these two came in Prussia, the immediate opportunity for action being furnished by a comparatively unimportant matter.

The Schleswig-Holstein question is today of no great moment and it is interesting in this connection only because it served as the direct cause for the final disagreement between Austria and Prussia. Schleswig and Holstein were two duchies lying south of Denmark and governed by an hereditary duke who was the king of Denmark. In Denmark the succession, in case there was no male descendant, might pass through the female line. In Schleswig and Holstein the succession could be by males alone. When King Frederick VII. of Denmark, who was also duke of Schleswig and Holstein, should die no direct male heirs would succeed him, and hence the Danish crown would go, as it did, in fact, to Christian IX., through the female line. Schleswig and Holstein must in that case be separated from Denmark and pass to the duke of Augustenberg, the next male heir. The Danish government, of course, wished to retain the two duchies, but they themselves preferred to remain in the German Confederation rather than become absorbed in Denmark. The future duke seemed to be amenable to that party which would pay him the highest price.

Such was the excitement in Germany at the time that the probable loss of the two

duchies seemed a most important calamity, and the Diet, therefore, commissioned its forces to occupy them and preserve them for the Confederation. Meantime Augustenberg sold out to Denmark, and the result was the war between the Confederation and the Danes in 1864, on the death of Frederick VII., in which the Danish forces were defeated and the duchies won over to the Confederation. This was conducted by Prussia and Austria and at its close they were entrusted with the government of the two new members, each having equal authority in both, but Austria was to conduct the government of Holstein while Prussia did the same for Schleswig.

In the meantime a great change had taken place in Prussia. William I. became king in 1861, on the death of his brother. He was a practical, common-sense man of great executive ability and extraordinary genius in choosing his ministers and representatives. He chose three men for his aides in different fields of work, men who have shown themselves to be among the most remarkable that Europe has produced in the nineteenth century. Von Bismarck-Schönhausen became minister-president of Prussia in October, 1862; Von Moltke was made field-marshal of the army and Von Roon became the head of the War Department.

Bismarck, the most important and powerful of the three, was then forty-seven years old. He had seen all the struggles of the last twenty-five years. He had been as delegate to the National Assembly at Frankfort and had been closely connected with the Schleswig-Holstein troubles. He had represented Prussia at St. Petersburg and at Paris, and he knew Napoleon and the czar. It was he more than any other who realized that theory and ideals amounted to nothing in the German situation at that time, and that the one thing which could and would unite Germany and at the same time aggrandize Prussia was a strong Prussian army which should first defeat Austria and then force Germany into one united state. He never kept this a secret. He said in so many words that the "great questions must be decided not by speeches and resolutions, but by blood and iron," and he maintained this to the end. When later he also filled the office of minister of foreign affairs, he adopted the same frankness in his dealings with other courts.

It was at this point that trouble arose between Austria and Prussia in Schleswig and Holstein. Austria finally permitted the stadtholder to convene the Estates in Holstein, which Prussia declared contrary to the articles of joint occupation. Upon this Austria moved in the Diet that the Confederation's troops, exclusive of Prussia, be mobilized to discipline Prussia for interfering with her government in Holstein. Prussia thereupon took up the gauntlet for the first time and seceded from the German Confederation, proposing at the same time to each of the governments a plan for forming a federal state with herself at the head. Bismarck, who since 1862 had been binding more and more closely the friendship of Italy with his own government by commercial treaties, now closed an alliance with the Italian government by which Italy was to assist Prussia on Austria's southern frontier, in return for which Venetia was to be turned over to her in case of victory. Napoleon III., who had come out of great success in the Italian campaign, wished for nothing better than to see the two strongest German powers destroy one another. He was in the main disposed, therefore, to remain neutral, waiting to see which should win, but as he did not doubt that Austria would come out ahead he was on the Austrian side.

The extraordinary quickness with which the war was conducted by Prussia is one of the remarkable features of modern military history. On the 14th of June, Saxony, Hanover, and Hesse voted against Prussia in the Diet. On the next day each received Prussia's ultimatum requiring it to disband and remain neutral. All three refused on the same day and on the 16th portions of the Prussian army invaded the territory of the three countries. On the 29th of June the Hanoverian army surrendered to Prussia and on the 3d of July the Prus-

sian army defeated the Austrian forces at Sadowa in a battle that completely routed the Austrians. Within a few days the Prussian troops were in sight of Vienna and on July 22 a truce was signed. The peace of Prague confirmed the preliminaries according to which Austria recognized the dissolution of the Diet and went out of the German Confederation for good and all and Venetia was ceded to Italy. Prussia at once proposed and carried through the North German Confederation, which included all the territory north of the river Main. The South German principalities, Bavaria, Würtemberg, Baden, and Hesse-Darmstadt entered into an alliance with the Confederation, but Napoleon, surprised at Prussia's power, did his best to keep Germany separated and had much to do with preventing Prussia from forcing them into the new Confederation and limiting her power to the country north of the Main.

From this time forth the French emperor realized that Prussia, and not Austria, was the power in Central Europe which would check France's growth, if any one did. Gradually from 1866 to 1870 it became more and more evident that Prussia and France must decide the question on the battle-field. Napoleon was constantly endeavoring to neutralize and minimize the growing power of Prussia. His own throne was unsafe and he felt the necessity of making some additions of territory or of winning new victories for his country in order to strengthen himself as he had in the Italian campaign. Bismarck on his side realized even before 1866 that a French war must come, for at that time he said to Benedetti, Napoleon's ambassador, that Prussia would fight rather than be dictated to by France. Moltke in 1869 submitted to the king a most minutely prepared plan of a campaign against the French, and for the four intervening years after the Austrian War the troops were drilled and increased in number with this one object in view. It now became evident to many others besides Bismarck that Prussia could only become a great power in Europe and the Germans be united in a federal state when the king of Prussia had fought and defeated his rivals in France and Austria. Month by month and year by year the actual declaration of war drew nearer. Prussia annexed both Schleswig and Holstein in 1867. The next year she opened the first customs parliament, which put another block in the building of the federal state, and she held out inducements to the South German kingdoms to unite with her in a commercial union.

At last Prussia reached the point where she found it necessary to accept the challenge to war again, though the actual causes of hostility were comparatively insignificant. Napoleon in his search for more territory hit upon Luxemburg, which was a strong fortress so situated as to become, in the hands of the French, a constant menace to Prussia's growth. He proposed to the Belgian government to buy Luxemburg, and might have succeeded in the preliminary arrangements, although Prussia maintained a garrison in the fortress, had not the Belgian government reported the secret negotiations to the Berlin authorities. The result was that the Prussian government called together the parties who had signed the treaty of 1839, dividing Luxemburg between Belgium and Holland and allowing her to keep up the garrison in the fortress, and they decided to destroy the fortifications and make Luxemburg a neutral state whose neutrality they guaranteed.

This effectually checked Napoleon's plans, besides humiliating him beyond measure. War appeared inevitable for a short time, but was not finally declared until the question of the Spanish succession arose. The Spanish government in search for a king finally chose Prince Leopold Hohenzollern-Sigmaringen. He was a relative of the king of Prussia and Napoleon felt that it was an insult to France that the crown of Charles V. should go to that house. He demanded that the Prussian court prevent this, but the demand was peremptorily refused, and almost immediately France declared war. At the last Napoleon himself was in doubt as to the wisdom of this campaign, but the empress, who hated Protestant Prussia, and the duke of Gra-

mont, the minister of war, both urged him on, and the declaration was finally made on July 19, 1870. Moltke, who had been ready for war for nearly two years, mobilized his enormous army upon the Rhine frontier with incredible swiftness, thus forcing the fighting into French territory at the start, and battle after battle went to the Prussians, until Paris was captured in January, 1871. The final accomplishment of the German Empire was made in the palace of Versailles, near Paris, on the first of that month, when the representatives of all the German principalities south and north of the Main joined Bismarck in offering King William I. the crown of emperor.

Much work still remained before the German Empire could really become a nation, and that work is still going on. But the uniting of the different independent principalities under one head was here accomplished. Since then the work of leaving each petty prince or king his own form of government, so far as is compatible with his allegiance to the emperor, and constantly knitting the federal state more closely has been taking place. Germany to-day, while one state, with its one system of moneys, weights, measures, and posts, its one diplomatic corps and one constitution, is still far from being the unit which the United States is, for example. There are exceptions in the empire to the letter of the constitution. Some parts of the empire are more independent of the imperial authority than are others. Germany is in fact more a unification of independent states under one federal government, and the United States is a federal government divided into states for local government.

The parties which arose almost immediately in the imperial parliament at Berlin were drawn on the old lines, the South Germans forming an anti-Prussian party with the Catholics, who are largely in the South, opposing the Protestants of the North. Nevertheless Germany is to-day a strongly centralized empire which holds an enormous influence in the European balance of power, and no one of the once independent states would now voluntarily sever its connection with the imperial government to become autonomous again. Austria since 1866 has had no hand in Central European politics other than as a foreign power, and her troubles in Hungary and on the Danube, together with her unprogressive methods, have caused her to drop behind Prussia.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

THE BOUNDLESS PRAYER OF FAITH.

If ye abide in me, and my words abide in you, ye shall ask what ye will, and it shall be done unto you. —*John xv. 7.*

[*October 3.*]

AT one of our military posts on the frontier an old Indian was often found, hungry and in rags and tatters, begging of the soldiers a little to keep soul and body together. And they were used to his approaches, for he had come year after year in that misery. At length one felt moved to inquire what it was that hung from an old ribbon about the Indian's neck. A locket was suspended there, and when he opened the locket there fell out a bit of parchment; that parchment was a Revolutionary pension bearing the signature of George Washington, the commander-in-chief of the American army, which entitled him to a comfortable competence during all the remainder of his days. And he had not known it!

Here is a promise for Christian people to-day: if ye abide in him, and his words abide in you, ye shall ask what ye will and it shall be done unto you. It is a draft on the Bank of the Kingdom, signed by the king himself, with the amount left in blank for us to fill out, and absolutely no limitations or conditions affixed to it. And we never have begun to use it! If we had we

should not be going about mourning, "Oh, my leanness! my leanness!" God intends us to be strong and enriched by his grace, with enough of everything that is needful in order to the satisfaction of our souls to the very uttermost. "Ye shall ask what ye will and it shall be done unto you."

But, mark you, that promise was given only to such as believed in Christ. It was addressed to them in that marvelous discourse in the upper room. Not that an unbeliever cannot pray. He cannot say, "My Father," for "he that hath not the Son hath not the Father"; he cannot say, "For Jesus' sake," for he has never accepted him of whom it is written, "He ever liveth to make intercession for us." But there is one prayer that every man may make—and for his life let him make it!—the prayer of the publican, who beat upon his breast as he stood afar off, with fallen eyes, crying, "O God, be merciful to me, a sinner"; and God, out of his infinite grace, will hear him.

[*October 10.*]

THIS promise was uttered in connection with the parable of the vine and the branches: "He that abideth in me, and I in him, the same bringeth forth much fruit: for without me ye can do nothing"; and, "If ye abide in me, and my words abide in you, ye shall ask what ye will and it shall be done unto you." "If ye abide in me"—that is the inner life; "If my words abide in you"—that is the outer life. The world cannot see whether Christ is abiding in you or not, but the world can see by your walk and conversation whether or no his words are abiding in you. Under this twofold condition, "ye may ask what ye will and it shall be done unto you"—all things, anything, everything! Whatsoever! That is the term of the promise. Ask, and it shall be given unto you. There is no such thing as a divine failure to answer. All prayer is answered; all prayer, mind you, offered in the filial spirit—for nothing else is prayer. The only true prayer is that which goes up from the heart of God's child to the throne of the heavenly grace; which begins with "Our Father" and ends with "For Jesus' sake." And that gets hold upon the strength of God, and nothing is impossible to it. So our proposition is, the boundless prayer of faith; absolutely, literally, the boundless prayer of faith. It rests upon three boundless facts. Here they are:

The first is *the boundless power of God.* He has infinite resources at his command. Why should not he give us whatsoever we ask? Do you feel the hand of death gripping at your heart-strings? Has some mortal malady taken hold upon you? And has the physician said, "Nothing can be done"? I believe in the faith cure: not in the professional charlatanry using that phrase, but in the power of the prayer of faith to do precisely what it did when Jesus went along the highways in the Holy Land. "If I may but touch the hem of his garment I shall be made whole." It was the touch of absolute faith that got hold of the hem of his garment, when virtue went out of him.

Are you in distress respecting your temporal estate? Oh, the cattle on a thousand hills are his, and all the gold and silver that lie buried in the deep bosom of the everlasting mountains—they are all his. What a little matter it is for God to relieve you!

Do you want to grow in grace toward the full stature of the manhood of Christ? He loves that desire, and is ready at the first impulse of your heart to grant it unto you.

Are you praying for a friend? Pray on. God loves an unselfish prayer. God can reach out anywhere to save a soul. How easy it is for him! If one of my dear ones was over yonder struggling in the water for life, and you were near by, and could reach out a hand, and I should call to you, "Oh, save him!" would you hesitate? Why shall God hesitate when I plead for the deliverance of my beloved from spiritual and eternal death?

[*October 17.*]

Do you say, "True, but his laws stand in the way"? Can a watchmaker adjust the machinery of a chronometer and turn the hands backward if he will? And shall

God not be able to manage the machinery of the universe as he will? The laws of the universe are God's laws. The universe is his chronometer. "Sun, stand thou still upon Gibeon! and thou, moon, in the valley of Ajalon!" There was a man named Joshua praying down yonder, and God moved the laws of the universe, and answered him.

Let us believe in his inexhaustible resources. Nothing is too hard for him. When Scipio was over in Egypt he said to the inhabitants, desiring to conciliate them after their subjugation, "Now, draw upon me, as you do upon your generous Nile, and see how magnanimous I can be." It was a splendid hyperbole. He could not do it, even if he had the heart for it. But if you and I were to sit upon the banks of the Nile until the almond-tree of old age blossomed, and watch its current rolling along to refresh the earth and satisfy the thirst of successive generations, and if that current were all of molten gold, flowing out of the divine exchequer, yet would it not diminish God's treasury so much as one drop of water exhaling from the boundless deep exhausts the immeasurable supply of it.

And then, this boundless prayer of faith rests on a second fact: *the boundless goodness of God.* He is able; is he willing? His name is Love. Oh, the length, and the breadth, and the depth, and the height of it!

> There's a wideness in God's mercy
> Like the wideness of the sea.

His promise, also, is given to us: "Ask, and it shall be given you; seek, and ye shall find; knock, and it shall be opened unto you." There is not an "if" there; not a "perhaps"; nor an "it may be so." "It *shall* be opened unto you." And as if he thought some of us might question his sincerity in making so vast a promise he immediately repeats it in this wise: "For every one that asketh, receiveth; and every one that seeketh, findeth; and to every one that knocketh, it shall be opened."

Besides, we have an argument back of that promise—a great argument, *a fortiori*, from the less to the greater—so that we may not misunderstand or question it. "For which of you, if his son shall ask bread, will he give him a stone? or if he ask a fish, will he give him a serpent? or if he ask an egg, will he offer him a scorpion? If ye, then, being evil, know how to give good gifts to your children, how much more shall your Father which is in heaven give good things to them that ask him."

[*October 24.*]

AND then, in addition to all this, his name, his promise, his argument, he adds the tremendous earnest which we have in Jesus Christ, when he says, "He that spared not his own Son, but delivered him up for us all, how shall he not with him also freely give us all things?" He bared his heart, took the very heart of his love out of his bosom, and cast it down upon this guilty world to save it. Now, "shall he not with him also freely give us all things?"

It is nothing for him to give. He delights to give. It is the joy of the divine life to be giving all the time. The most delightsome day in the life of the empress Josephine, she said in one of her letters, was when coming through the walks with her husband she was left for a little while to rest in a humble cottage. She saw that the eyes of the lone woman there were stained with tears, and she asked her trouble. The woman said it was poverty. "How much," said Josephine, "would relieve it?" "Oh," she said, "there is no relieving it; it would require four hundred francs to help us out, to save our little vineyard and our goats." Josephine counted out of her purse the four hundred francs into the woman's lap, and she gathered them together, and fell down before her, and kissed her feet. And that was the happiest day in that poor empress' life. But all God's life is filled with days like that. His name is Love. He delights to hear our prayer, to answer it, to relieve and to enrich us.

This boundless prayer of faith rests upon yet a third fact, to wit: *God's boundless wisdom.* He knows precisely what I need, and for that reason I am emboldened to ask. I would not dare to ask if God were no wiser than myself. I would not dare to kneel

down and ask him for a temporal gift that might be to my moral and eternal ruin, for all I know. I cannot see beyond my finger tips, but I can trust him. My Father knows; knows what is best for me. "But if he knows before the asking what I need, why should I make a prayer at all?" That is the word of an objector who never knew God's love in Jesus Christ. It is enough for you that he bids you keep up the constant current of communication between your heart and him. "Ask, and it shall be given you."

Ask largely. The prayer of faith knows no limit. Be not afraid. Your large request honors every attribute of God. In one of the Psalms it is written, "Open thy mouth wide and I will fill it." I wonder if the figure came from David's life among the hills, where, watching from yonder cliff, he saw the fledglings in the eagle's nest, saw them as the mother bird came back with some rich morsel, open their bills and wait? I wonder if that suggested to him our helplessness, and God's desire to honor our requests? Open your mouth wide and he will fill it.

[*October 31.*]

Ask confidently. Be assured that he will answer you. You are a child of God. The filial spirit is the only condition that is presupposed as to prayer. It is the only prerequisite, and includes all other conditions that affect our approach to the mercy-seat. Pray as a son or daughter of the loving God, that is, being mindful of his superior wisdom. You may ask a stone; he will not give it, but he will give you bread; and will you say, "He did not answer me"? You may, out of the shortness of your wisdom, ask a scorpion; he will not give you that, but he will honor your prayer, and give you a fish; and will you say, "He did not answer me"? The Lord Jesus once, in the weakest hour of all his earthly life, when all his flesh was crying out against the approaching anguish of a bitter death, made the prayer of a real man. (And God wants us to pour out our whole soul before him. Better make a wrong prayer than no prayer at all.) In that awful hour in Gethsemane the Lord implored, "My Father, if it be possible, let this cup pass from me." But, after all, as the light of the great redemption work dawned upon his soul, he went on to say, "Oh, my Father, thy will be done"; and so his prayer was answered that day.

The widow of a minister, long, long ago, came to the prophet's house, and wept out her sorrow, saying, "My creditors have come, and they require my two sons as a pledge, and they are all that I have. The good man is dead. You knew him—how he worked for God; and I am left alone with my two lads." And the prophet said, "Go back to thy home. What hast thou?" "Nothing." "Nothing?" "No; only a pot of oil; that is all that is left." "Go back to thy house, and take thy two lads, and make ready the pot of oil; then go borrow vessels. Borrow of all thy neighbors round about. Now, borrow vessels not a few, remember; and then enter into a room with thy lads, and the pot of oil, and the vessels, and shut to the door, and pour out." And she did so, and she filled the first vessel with oil, and the supply was not gone. "Bring me another vessel," she said to the lads; and they brought her another, and she filled it; and the oil was not stayed yet. Another, and another, vessels not a few; all the vessels that were there. "Bring me yet another." And one of the lads said, "Mother, there is not another vessel here"; and the oil stayed.

There is supply under God's bounty forever, if we will. What limits the supply? Faith. God's resources are infinite. The oil flows on forever, but the vessels give out. O for faith! O for a larger faith!—a faith that shall approach the infinite love of the infinite God!—a faith that shall rest absolutely on his unbounded power, his unbounded goodness, his unbounded wisdom, and shall believe his Word: "If ye abide in me, and my words abide in you, ye shall ask what ye will, and it shall be done unto you."—*David James Burrell, D. D.*

"FAKE" BUSINESSES.

BY DR. LUDWIG FULD.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

IN Germany, as in most other countries that have passed the agricultural stage of development, and in which consequently the battle for existence becomes constantly harder by reason of the always increasing competition, the bad habit has been formed of promoting business and professional interests by principles contrary to honesty. Successful competitors, of course, must also resort to foul means. The extent to which this happens obliged the state to take restrictive measures so that the conscientious merchant and business man who scorns to enlarge his custom by the help of unscrupulous practices may not be forced to compete in business with the tricks of dishonest rivals.

The task which the state thus has on its hands will be seen to be an intensely difficult one, for, first of all, it is not easy to draw a sharp distinction between legitimate and "fake" businesses. In surveying the many expedients one is very much in doubt as to whether they belong to the former or the latter category. Then, too, the "unfair" business is a veritable Proteus, so active is it in changing the forms of its corporification; for the human inventive faculty, it is known, is as strong in evil as in good persons. Hitherto it has shown itself active in devising new forms which shall not fall directly under the law for suppressing certain degeneracies of business callings.

In France extensive protections against unfair business have obtained for more than two generations, and that without special legislation against it. On the ground of the simple and really self-explaining definition, one recognized, too, in the laws of nearly all civilized countries, that he who does injury to another is bound to make amends, the French have built up a comprehensive system of protection against unfair competition. By so doing they have given proof of wonderful resourcefulness. The fundamental idea of it is that in spite of the freedom of professions and trades, no competitor can injure another in his business by means which from the standpoint of sound business morals must be classed as unfair.

The practical effects of this system of protection are everywhere conspicuous. To it in no small degree French industry is indebted for its position and its efficiency. In Germany it took many years' agitation in favor of the protection of trade and industry before a law to this effect was secured. Contrary to the French law, it contains no general formula applicable to use for all forms of unfair competition, but it makes specifications against well-defined forms of the evil. Hence it is not able to accomplish what the protective system of France accomplishes. A wider difference between the French and the German law is that the latter imposes penalties against the unfair enterpriser, while the former considers it sufficient to grant the injured one a judgment for indemnity.

To particularize, the German law alludes to the following subjects:

First of all it restricts transgressions in the nature of claims consisting in the propagation of false statements on the condition of business by which customers may be induced to think a specially favorable offer is given them. In this category belong false statements on the quality of wares and on their makes, such as representing as hand-made a fabric made by machine, on the age of a business, on the amount of stock in trade, and on the cause and aim of a clearing sale, such as the false claim that a clearing sale is held on account of death or moving, that one is selling out a bankrupt's estate, etc.

Moreover, authority is vested in the coun-

cil of the German federation to insist that certain wares shall be sold only in small trade and in stipulated quantities.

A third subject with which the law deals is slander. This includes all untrue statements propagated to damage a business or its manager's credit, such as that a fabric has been damaged by fire and that a proprietor of a concern has been in disgrace, that a mine has been flooded with water, etc. Under this head is included also protection against the use of names, firms, titles of books, and of other publications, which would deceive the public into expecting something different than really was offered to it. No publisher is allowed to start a publication under the name "Ueber Land und Meer," no publisher may put out a guide-book with the title "Baedeker's Guide-book," nor would any new hotel that might be erected on the site of the hotel known for years as the "Rheinischer Hof" be permitted to appropriate the same or almost the same name.

After noting these examples one can realize without difficulty how far protection against this kind of unfair competition goes, and for every-day dealing it is by far the most important kind of restriction. At least this is the case in France and in a measure in England and the United States of America, where they consider as unfair competition the imitation, when calculated to deceive, not only of a special name of a theater, circus, restaurant, and like concerns, for instance the names Elysium, Eldorado, Apollo Theater, Glass Palace, but also of a name of a railroad, a ship, etc. Whether Germany will extend her regulations to include so much as this remains to be seen.

Finally, the law provides against the betrayal of the business and trade secrets of an establishment by its workmen, its apprentices, and helpers. The betrayal is punishable, but only when it is committed during the term of service; after leaving a place a helper is not punishable if at another post he converts into money the knowledge and experience he gained in a former position. They are punishable who put into use for themselves or impart to others secrets which they have gained by dealings unlawful or in violation of good morals. They also are liable to punishment who, even though unsuccessfully, try to make persons pledged to silence break their oaths. These last regulations have met with the most opposition, because it was feared that they might injure the position of helper not a little and make it difficult for laborers to secure work.

To other forms of unfair competition the law gives no attention. It now depends mostly on the degree of intelligent application the law receives whether the hopes built on it shall be realized and whether as a result of its enforcement truth and confidence again shall become the basis of competitive trade in Germany, as formerly was the case.

In its moral effects, too, the decree of the law is not to be undervalued, for through it has become established the principle that strict honesty may not be violated in the interests of trade and gain.

COLORS OF AUTUMN IN LEAF AND FLOWER.

BY F. SCHUYLER MATHEWS.

"THE leafy month of June" sings one English poet, and "June with its roses, the gladdest month" sings another; but no one sings of our bounteous American autumn, with its clear and exhilarating days filled with the radiance of countless beautiful leaves and flowers. He who sings of autumn placing "a fiery finger here and there" strikes only the opening notes of the autumnal symphony; he leaves unsung the grand climax of nature—the fulfilment of her promises, the pouring into our laps of all the wealth of bloom and fruitfulness belonging to the year.

What an immense contrast there is between June and September! One is quite the an-

tithesis of the other, yet both are as brilliant in color as they could possibly be. June is a symphony in green; October is a grand *finale* in orange, red, and yellow. November comes with a contrast almost violent; skies are leaden, woods are bare, and the birds have flown.

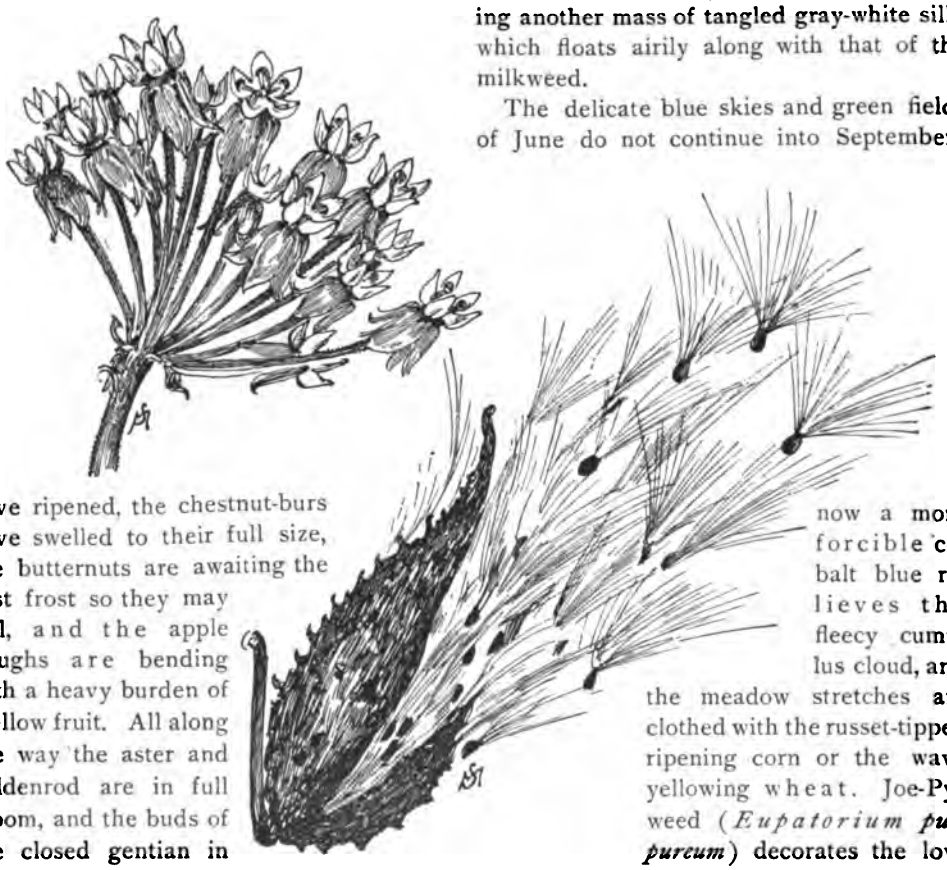
> No grass, no leaves—
> No t'other side the way,

sings Thomas Hood, and as we remember the spendthrift character of October we do not wonder that there is little or nothing left for November—that it is a bankrupt month.

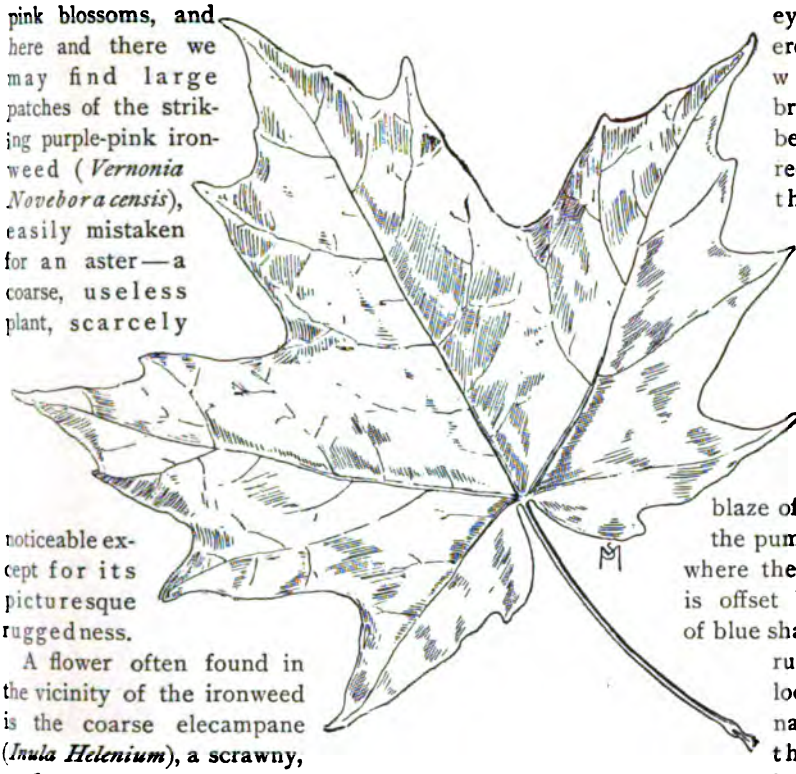
But nature has worked quickly and well up to the finality of her plans. The best of her wild roses were delayed until July; they did not appear in June except in the country farther south. By the end of September her work is completed, and October finds golden fruit in plenty ready for the garner. With the arrival of autumn the wild cherries have ripened, the chestnut-burs have swelled to their full size, the butternuts are awaiting the first frost so they may fall, and the apple boughs are bending with a heavy burden of mellow fruit. All along the way the aster and goldenrod are in full bloom, and the buds of the closed gentian in the shadow of the wood are beginning to turn blue. There is the widest kind of a contrast between June and September; the skies are different in color, so are the very trunks of the trees and the lichen-covered rocks. Early summer weaves an embroidery of wild strawberries and cinquefoils along the roadside, but autumn finds the highway lined with imposing weeds whose stout stems and heavy flower-clusters obtrude themselves on our vision whichever way we turn.

In June and July the air was heavy with the strong, sweet perfume of the common milkweed flower (*Asclepias Cornuti*); now the withering weed is changed to a vision of silken beauty, for its picturesque seed pods are distributing their filmy contents far and wide with every puff of the breeze. Scarcely less beautiful is the pale magenta-flowered fireweed (*Epilobium angustifolium*) whose long, slender curved pods at the lower extremities of the flowering stalks are liberating another mass of tangled gray-white silk, which floats airily along with that of the milkweed.

The delicate blue skies and green fields of June do not continue into September; now a more forcible cobalt blue relieves the fleecy cumulus cloud, and the meadow stretches are clothed with the russet-tipped ripening corn or the wavy yellowing wheat. Joe-Pye weed (*Eupatorium purpureum*) decorates the low-lands with its pale, esthetic



FLOWER AND SEED POD OF MILKWEED.



LEAF OF THE SUGAR MAPLE.

pink blossoms, and here and there we may find large patches of the striking purple-pink ironweed (*Vernonia Noveboracensis*), easily mistaken for an aster—a coarse, useless plant, scarcely noticeable except for its picturesque ruggedness.

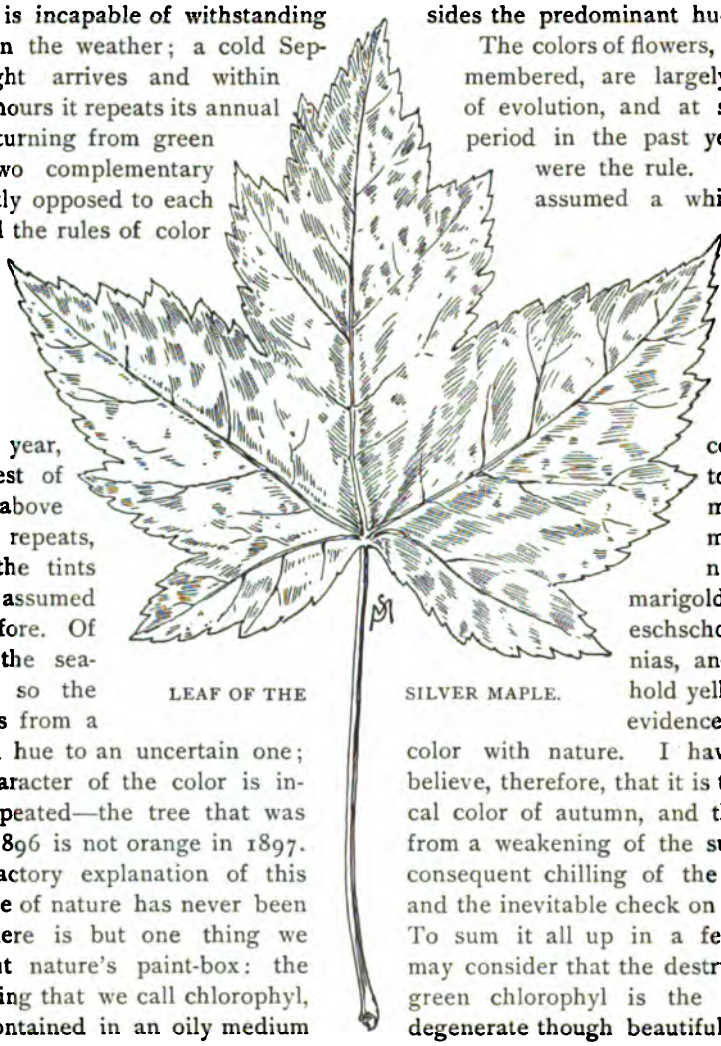
A flower often found in the vicinity of the ironweed is the coarse elecampane (*Inula Helenium*), a scrawny, sunflower-like plant, also characterized by a wild, picturesque appearance. In direct contrast with these stalwart weeds is the dainty climbing bittersweet (*Celastrus scandens*) whose pumpkin-colored fruit is now hanging in small clusters ready to burst and show the pretty scarlet berry within. One of the most charming bits of autumnal color is the combination of the orange-red berries with the sage-green, lichen-covered stone wall. We are accustomed to think that the old stone wall is a gray affair, holding a strictly neutral position in relation to the colors of nature; not so! in June the shadows on the wall are strongly tinted with lilac, and in October they are dashed with the softest, mistiest violet-blue. An old, weather-beaten board fence is not colorless either; to represent it faithfully in a painting, the brilliant leaf-setting of autumn would tinge it by force of contrast with violet, and it would be necessary to set the pallet with a number of pale purple tints.

We do not sufficiently recognize the fact that autumn tints every object before our eyes. The withered ferns are a warm, ruddy brown; the ground beneath them is a reddish rust color; the shadows of leaves are lilac-tinted, and in the depths of the shade-embowered pool in the mountain stream are gleams of amber light. The blaze of orange color on the pumpkins in the field where the corn is stacked is offset by the daintiest of blue shadows among the russet corn. We look for the autumnal colors among the flowers and leaves, but the tenderest tints are found in the misty shadows. The beech (*Fagus ferruginea*) in October is clothed in the palest of buff-yellows; the shadows on its gray branches are pale blue. The spruce-clad mountain melts away down in the valley in ultramarine shadows sharply terminated by the orange-russet color of the nearer maple-clad hill.

The maple grove, when September comes, usually supplies us with the best collection of autumn leaves which the woodlands afford. On the slope of the hill stands a picturesque little shanty with an abnormally large chimney; this is the "sap-house" where six months ago the sweet sap steamed away its watery character and transformed itself into syrup and sugar. Then the sugar maple (*Acer saccharinum*) stood bare of every leaf; now it stands in a glory of pale buff-yellow or rusty orange. Most of the sugar maples turn a soft, light yellow; all the red or swamp maples (*Acer rubrum*) turn a splendid scarlet-red or orange-rust color. The little shrublike mountain maple

(*Acer spicatum*) becomes red or orange, with dashes here and there of yellow; and the silver maple (*Acer dasycarpum*) frequently combines scarlet with green, and gives us some handsome, brilliant leaves. But the red maple fully deserves its name, for its twigs and flowers are red in the spring, and its leaves are born and die in the same splendid color.

One who closely observes the progress of the turning leaves will very often notice one branch of a maple turned scarlet in early autumn, all the rest of the tree remaining green. How or why this singularly exclusive radical change of color came about we cannot tell. Apparently some particular branch, less nourished by the tree than the others, is incapable of withstanding a change in the weather; a cold September night arrives and within forty-eight hours it repeats its annual custom of turning from green to red—two complementary colors exactly opposed to each other by all the rules of color harmony. And not only does the same branch turn the same color each year, but the rest of the tree, above and below, repeats, later on, the tints which it assumed the year before. Of course as the seasons vary so the color varies from a pronounced hue to an uncertain one; but the character of the color is invariably repeated—the tree that was yellow in 1896 is not orange in 1897.



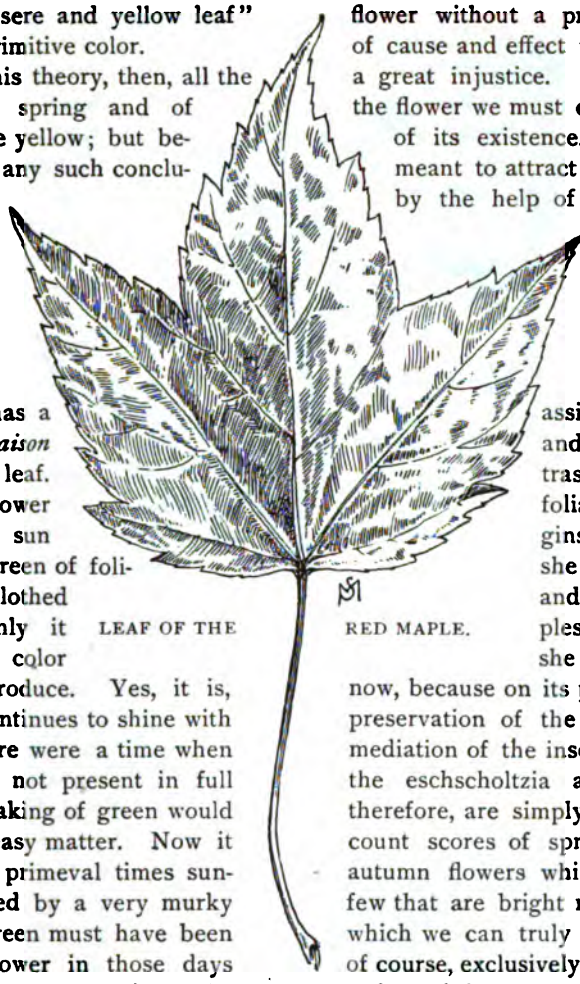
LEAF OF THE SILVER MAPLE.

A satisfactory explanation of this uniform rule of nature has never been made. There is but one thing we know about nature's paint-box: the green coloring that we call chlorophyl, which is contained in an oily medium enclosed in a minute cell beneath the upper surface of the leaf, is an extremely complex substance difficult of analysis, and it is destroyed by frost or even extremely cool air. Why or how it is replaced by a red or yellow coloring matter, again we cannot tell. Green is a color which is intense in proportion to the amount of strong sunlight it absorbs; vegetable growth in a dark cellar lacks depth of pigment; green is not possible, and its degenerate form is yellow. It is highly probable that the yellows of October are the result of a greatly reduced chemical action of the sun's rays. Certainly yellow is one of the easiest colors for nature to produce, or else it would not be one of the commonest flower colors, besides the predominant hue of autumn.

The colors of flowers, it must be remembered, are largely the results of evolution, and at some distant period in the past yellow flowers were the rule. Those which assumed a white hue evidently did so the better to attract night-loving insects. Yellow is one of the easiest colors for me to procure in my garden; in midsummer, nasturtiums, marigolds, sunflowers, eschscholtzias, zinnias, and calendulas hold yellow in strong evidence as a popular color with nature. I have reason to believe, therefore, that it is the most logical color of autumn, and that it results from a weakening of the sun's power, a consequent chilling of the atmosphere, and the inevitable check on plant growth. To sum it all up in a few words, we may consider that the destruction of the green chlorophyl is the advent of a degenerate though beautiful condition of

plant life; the "sere and yellow leaf" is a return to a primitive color.

According to this theory, then, all the flowers of early spring and of autumn should be yellow; but before we jump at any such conclusion let us see whether it is a justifiable one. It appears that all spring and autumn flowers are not yellow, and that the flower has a very different *raison d'être* from the leaf. With the full power of the summer sun comes the rich green of foliage; the earth is clothed with it. Certainly it must be an easy color for nature to produce. Yes, it is, when the sun continues to shine with power, but if there were a time when that power was not present in full force then the making of green would not be such an easy matter. Now it is a fact that in primeval times sunlight was obscured by a very murky atmosphere, so green must have been considerably yellower in those days than it is now; yellow must have played a very important part in primitive vegetation.

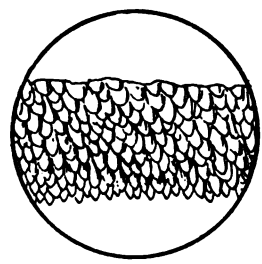


LEAF OF THE RED MAPLE.

But to jump from the foliage to the flower without a proper consideration of cause and effect is to do our theory a great injustice. Before we look at the flower we must question the reason of its existence. The flower was meant to attract the insect, so that, by the help of the latter, life in the plant world should be sustained to a better advantage. To find the flower the insect must be assisted by a color, and one quite in contrast with the green of foliage. So nature begins with the flower as she did with the foliage, and develops the simplest color first; but she purifies her yellow now, because on its perfection rests the preservation of the plant through the mediation of the insect. The yellow of the eschscholtzia and the marigold, therefore, are simply perfect. We can count scores of spring, summer, and autumn flowers which are yellow, but few that are bright red and hardly one which we can truly call blue—I refer, of course, exclusively to the wild flowers.

GREATLY MAGNIFIED SECTION OF A SUGAR MAPLE LEAF, SHOWING STRUCTURE OF CELLS AND VEINS, MORE OR LESS DEEPLY COLORED WITH CHLOROPHYL.

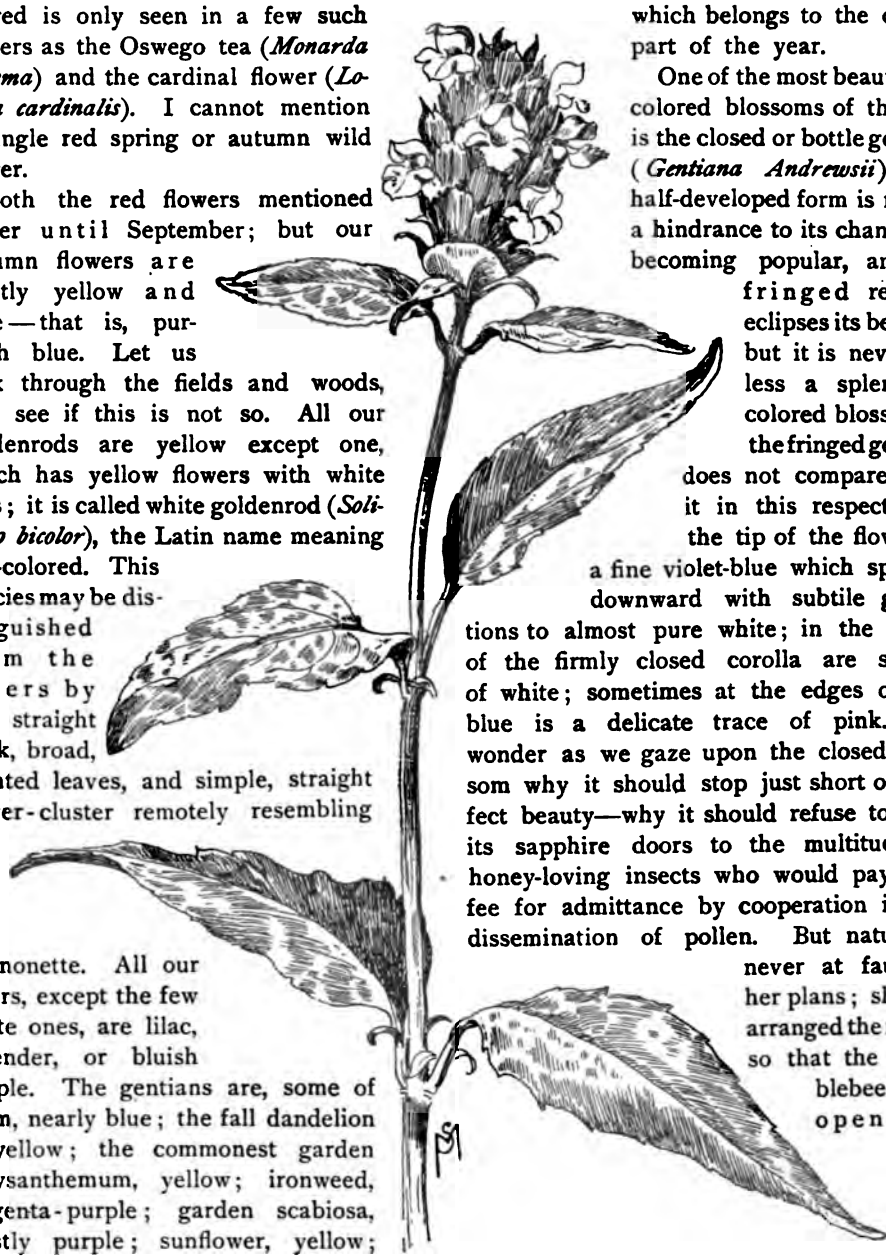
As for red, however unaccountable its brilliance is in the leaf of the maple or sumach for a few days in autumn, its appearance in the budding leaves of spring and the bare twigs of winter is a sufficient reason for us to believe that it is another color easy for nature to produce, in at least a modified form, without the assistance of powerful sun rays. Among the flowers, the modification of this color is most obvious and common in pink; but the full strength



GREATLY MAGNIFIED SURFACE OF A NASTURTIUM PETAL, SHOWING CONE-LIKE STRUCTURE IN DEEP YELLOW COLOR.

of red is only seen in a few such flowers as the Oswego tea (*Monarda didyma*) and the cardinal flower (*Lobelia cardinalis*). I cannot mention a single red spring or autumn wild flower.

Both the red flowers mentioned linger until September; but our autumn flowers are mostly yellow and blue — that is, purplish blue. Let us look through the fields and woods, and see if this is not so. All our goldenrods are yellow except one, which has yellow flowers with white rays; it is called white goldenrod (*Solidago bicolor*), the Latin name meaning two-colored. This species may be distinguished from the others by its straight stalk, broad, pointed leaves, and simple, straight flower-cluster remotely resembling mignonette. All our asters, except the few white ones, are lilac, lavender, or bluish purple. The gentians are, some of them, nearly blue; the fall dandelion is yellow; the commonest garden chrysanthemum, yellow; ironweed, magenta-purple; garden scabiosa, mostly purple; sunflower, yellow; brunella or self-heal, purple; chicory and viper's bugloss, violet-blue. It seems as though nature confines herself in the autumnal months to yellow and its complementary color, purple; the latter hue, somewhat pale in the flower world, appears in full force among some of the fruits, and strangely enough in the winter sunset sky, along with yellow. Violet, or purple, together with yellow is undoubtedly a color which belongs to the colder part of the year.



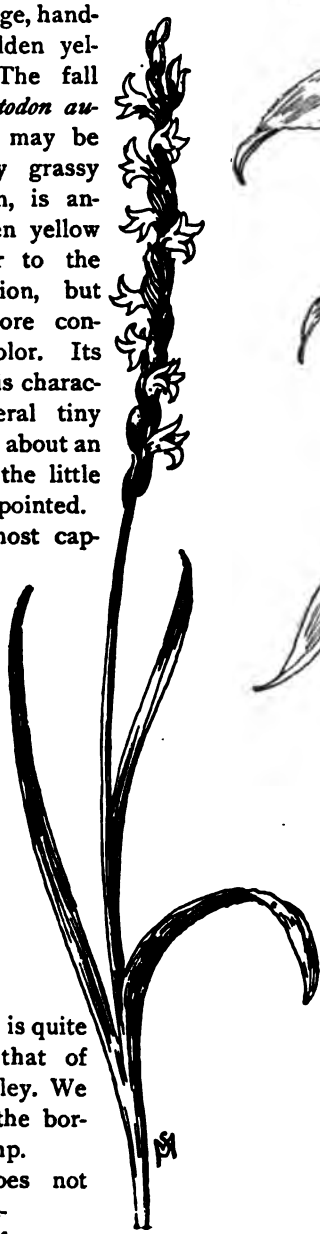
SELF-HEAL.

One of the most beautifully colored blossoms of the fall is the closed or bottle gentian (*Gentiana Andrewsii*). Its half-developed form is rather a hindrance to its chances of becoming popular, and its fringed relative eclipses its beauty; but it is nevertheless a splendidly colored blossom — the fringed gentian does not compare with it in this respect. At the tip of the flower is a fine violet-blue which spreads downward with subtile gradations to almost pure white; in the plaits of the firmly closed corolla are stripes of white; sometimes at the edges of the blue is a delicate trace of pink. We wonder as we gaze upon the closed blossom why it should stop just short of perfect beauty—why it should refuse to open its sapphire doors to the multitude of honey-loving insects who would pay their fee for admittance by cooperation in the dissemination of pollen. But nature is never at fault in her plans; she has arranged the flower so that the bumblebee can open the door, and this useful visitor is the only one needed for the culmination of her plan. All useless pilferers find the door securely closed.

The glory of September is the goldenrod and aster. Here are yellow and purple in full force, but nature, ever diverse, endows each species with a color of its own. Thus the little heart-leaved aster (*Aster cordifolius*)

has the most delicate lavender tint; *Aster spectabilis*, a rich purple hue; *Aster Novæ-Angliæ*, a rosy purple color. Even the goldenrods vary greatly in their hues: *Solidago arguta*, an early species, is a rich yellow with hardly a trace of golden color; *Solidago juncea*, which immediately succeeds it, is golden yellow, and *Solidago cæsia*, a late species, has a large, handsome, bright golden yellow blossom. The fall dandelion (*Leontodon autumnale*), which may be found on every grassy slope in autumn, is another rich golden yellow flower similar to the spring dandelion, but smaller and more condensed in its color. Its flowering stem is characterized by several tiny protrusions lying about an inch apart, and the little leaves are blunt-pointed.

One of the most captivating blossoms of the year comes in September. It is the little sweet-smelling ladies' tresses (*Spiranthes cernua*), a member of the Orchis family—a dainty little thing with a spiral cluster of waxy blossoms whose delicate perfume is quite comparable to that of the lily-of-the-valley. We will find it on the borders of the swamp.



LADIES' TRESSES.

The year does not wane with a degenerate line of flowers following the luxuriant summer weeds; the final harvest of the garden is often the most glorious. It would seem as if nature, afraid that her last handful of flowers might pass disregarded, does her utmost to make them attractive. She fringes the "lids" of the blue gentian, and covers the chrysanthemum tribe with a glory of color. Not content with this, she turns every tree to a blaze of red or yellow, and tints the undergrowth of the forest with touches of copper and gold. She may begin with a "fiery finger," but she ends by emptying her paint-box, and gilding her colors!

THE BOTTLE GENTIAN.

IMPERIAL GERMANY AND IMPERIAL ROME.

BY PROFESSOR GEORGE E. VINCENT, PH.D.

OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO.

ON the high street of Edinburgh, near the summit of the rock crowned by a medieval fortress known as The Castle, stands a modern building which reproduces an architectural type of the old Scotch capital. Rising from the high roof of this building is a quaint watch-tower. Here every morning in August a company of students gather to look out over the broad area commanded from this vantage-point. In the foreground lie the old city and the new. To the north one catches a glimpse of the Firth of Forth, and to the south lies an undulating country dotted with woodland. It is this region spread out before their eyes which these students are to study in its many aspects. Some of them will set off upon a geological excursion, others will spend the afternoon in search of birds and insects, still others will study architectural remains, while possibly another group may traverse the area as the stage on which a great historical drama has been played. Yet all begin their work by this outlook at the whole, and day by day, as they return to look out once more after a study of details, the region gains deeper and deeper meaning for them. This general outlook and the detailed study are typical of the way in which man grows in knowledge and insight; and this method has a lesson for the systematic reader as well as for the more methodical student.

In these days a new way of looking at life is being gradually unfolded, so that the past is re-interpreted and the present is more clearly understood. It is even asserted by a group of historical students that we deceive ourselves by thinking that we study from the past to the present, when in reality we begin with the present and make our way gradually into the past. This view may be so over-emphasized as to make us lose sight of the other aspect of the truth, which is that by tracing events from the past toward the present we are better able to grasp the meaning of contemporary life.

However, the most essential thing for us to remember is that all events are related to each other in a series of orderly development, and that true progress in knowledge involves both familiarity with many facts and a putting of the facts into their relations. To many people history seems a collection of interesting photographs, scenes of value in themselves, pictures which even out of their setting are a grateful possession of the imagination. Queen Elizabeth on her white palfrey reviewing her loyal troops on the southern coast of England as the Spanish Armada sweeps up the chánnel is in itself a picture to be prized. But, put into its relationships, its meaning for human progress is far more impressive than that of a mere detached event, however romantic or heroic. So, too, Charles Martel, the "Hammer of God," checking the Mohammedan forces on the plains of France and driving them back behind the Pyrenees, presents a dramatic picture. But that event viewed in all its connections was fraught with the utmost significance for the future development of Europe.

We may contrast a collection of detached and intrinsically interesting photographs with the film by means of which the moving pictures which are just now objects of surprise and interest are projected on a screen. If we examine one of these films we find hundreds of tiny photographs, each almost imperceptibly differing from its neighbors. Yet if we glance at two views separated by several feet upon this ribbon of pictures we find that there are clearly distinguishable differences. So we may say that historical events are no longer thought of as unrelated pictures. They fall into series which shade almost imperceptibly the one into the other,

and represent a continuous movement of men's thoughts and actions.

We may perhaps bring more vividly to thought the way in which things hang together if we attempt to account for ourselves in any one of the many situations of our lives. The reader of this article, for example, as he sits holding the magazine in his hands, is a center from which countless series of events might be traced far back into the history of the race. The symbols by means of which ideas are communicated from the printed page have been worked over by countless individuals through many generations. The history of any one of these words would itself require long and painstaking investigation and study. Again, the clothes the reader wears represent a development of garments and of fashions through many ages and countries. All the material things—chair, table, lamp, the room itself, the house—are to be explained only by connecting them with long series of events which constitute the story of the development which each has undergone. It has been well said that fully to explain any one thing would be to relate it to the entire realm of human knowledge. Thus for the reader who would read wisely it is of prime importance to let his mind dwell not only upon interesting details, but consciously to put these details in order and to see them as a whole.

Guided by these two ideas of the relation of facts to each other and the gradual development of historical events, the student of society past and present gains in clearness of vision and in grasp of reality. But these reflections in this general form are of little value until they are put into the concrete. It is with the hope of giving the reader a general survey of the reading for the current year that this article has been prepared. The volumes which make up the course for the coming winter are not to be thought of as detached bits of information, but as different aspects of one great subject, the development of civilization out of the past into our contemporary life. To be sure, only a certain section of this historical growth is to be considered, but that section has a certain unity of its own and may be viewed as a whole.

In general the reader will gain an idea of the way in which imperial Rome, slowly weakened by failures of its national life, succumbed to the inroads of the vigorous barbarians of the North. He will then see the centralized society of Rome gradually disintegrated until there is no great central authority in Europe. Government becomes a local affair and society begins to form again about petty chiefs, who are the first centers of reorganization. In Western Europe the broad plains are favorable to the growth of larger and larger groups. Slowly modern France emerges out of provinces and kingdoms which are one by one combined under a growing central authority.

In Central Europe, on the other hand, a surface broken by mountains into many small natural divisions offers conditions favorable to the formation and maintenance of smaller principalities and provinces. Here, too, there are tendencies toward centralization, but they are more than counterbalanced by the rivalries and jealousies of smaller political communities. Although under the guise and proud title of the Holy Roman Empire an apparent unity is attained, in reality Central Europe remains the land of subdivision, of faction, of mutual antagonism and distrust.

But during the time of this struggle for political unity there has been another organizing, unifying agency at work. The church through the extension of its system in Europe draws men together into a spiritual community which ignores even political and racial lines. There is a struggle between the power of the church and the power of the state—a struggle for supremacy which lasts through several centuries and continues as a factor in modern life.

Finally the centralized authority in France, through a great social upheaval, is transferred from an unworthy aristocracy to the great body of the nation. A democratized but none the less national France, attacked from without, wages war against Europe, overruns the Germanic group in the center

of the continent, reorganizes southern Germany, where democratic ideas are welcomed, defeats Austria on the south and Prussia on the north, and abolishes even the name of what had ceased to exist in fact—the Holy Roman Empire.

But a reaction comes. The French democracy under an imperial dictator attempts too much and loses all. The Germanic peoples are again combined in a loose and impotent confederation which fails to secure any unity of action and serves simply to emphasize the antagonisms which divide the group. Two powers emerge in struggle for the mastery: Austria in the South, Prussia in the North. At first Austria maintains a supremacy, but Prussia gradually gains in power, and, wisely and firmly guided, advances steadily toward leadership. The conflict comes at last; a brief campaign decides the issue. Austria is defeated and Prussia becomes predominant in German affairs.

Still the southern states of Baden, Würtemberg, and Bavaria hold aloof. Yet Prussia opens negotiations with them and bonds of relationship begin to be strengthened. Germany is nearer union than ever before in her history.

At this juncture war with France, for which Prussia has long been preparing, is declared. A brief campaign sends the forces of northern Germany, reenforced by troops from the South, from the French frontier to the very walls of Paris. Just before the capital yields and in the enthusiasm of victory the Prussian king is crowned emperor of Germany. The states of the North and the South, under a new constitution, gain a political unity and come to a national self-consciousness. So the imperial Germany of to-day represents the culmination of long series of events stretching far back into the past.

It is only in the light of history that we can really explain the actual conditions of Germany to-day. It seems absurd at first glance, for example, that Baden should have its own issue of postage stamps, printed from a special design and good for use only in that state. Fancy Massachusetts insisting upon making the stamps used in her territory and printing a picture of Bunker Hill monument on them! Yet when we read of the traditional factiousness of the German states, their jealousy of Prussia, their tenacity of provincial privileges, and their reluctance to be subordinated even to a national government, we find less to wonder at.

Again when in discussing a conflict with the Roman Catholic Church Bismarck declared, "I never shall take the road to Canossa," all Germany saw a picture. In the snowy courtyard of the Castle of Canossa, Henry IV. knelt, patiently awaiting an audience with the great Pope Gregory VII.—the state sued the church for peace. In this allusion of the German chancellor there was a wealth of historical meaning which was lost upon those who had not traced the development of German life. Once more modern Germany cannot be explained without taking into account that great religious and political struggle known as the Reformation. After an almost continuous war of thirty years, German territory was in a general way divided between the Protestant and Catholic faiths. The former was entrenched in the North, the latter retained its hold in the South. So that among the factors which explain the still surviving antagonism of these two sections must be reckoned that of religious antipathy.

German administration has become famous for its system, the efficiency of its officials, and the honesty with which public business is transacted. Although stigmatized often as bureaucracy, the German public service has been developed to a high point of effectiveness. It is doubtful whether the English civil service is its equal, and certainly the United States can make no claim to conspicuous success in this regard.

At first glance these differences seem strange. One might naturally expect that those countries in which intelligence is most widely diffused would excel in the thoroughness and system of public administration. A study, however, of the forces by which modern Germany has been developed shows

that power from above in the form of a personal monarchy, often enlightened and almost always honest, has devised and superimposed upon the people a system to which the public has submitted and grown accustomed. If we trace the development of Prussia from a beggarly principality into a powerful kingdom we shall see the evolution of strong autocratic power usually devoted to the interests of the whole people rather than to the aggrandizement of a single class. It is only when the methods of modern German government are interpreted in the light of historical growth that they can be fully understood. To set up German methods as models to be imitated in America is to disregard the fundamental differences in the governmental theories of the two nations. In Germany systems may be forced upon the people from above; in the United States they must grow—often with irritating slowness—out of public opinion.

This characteristic of German government also explains in large measure the attention which has been given by German law and administration to the solution of the various pressing social problems which in various forms confront all modern nations. In England and in the United States, private initiative in the form of organized charity, boards of conciliation, social settlements, and other agencies has attempted to meet conditions with which in Germany the government has boldly dealt. It is for this reason that the experience afforded by German social legislation is regarded as of so much value in throwing light upon social questions. The problems of the unemployed, of labor disputes, of poverty, and of disability in old age have all been directly dealt with in Germany by the government. In Germany, too, statistics have been gathered and a large area of social conditions thoroughly investigated. Thus it is that a survey of modern Germany affords an admirable point of departure for the study of social conditions generally.

As we make our way from modern times toward the Roman Empire we are confronted by that period falling in general between 1500 and 350 A. D., vaguely described as the Dark Ages. These centuries for a long time baffled the historians, and lay as fields little cultivated. The histories of Greece and Rome were dwelt upon, but from the fall of the great empire to the emergence of national life in France and Germany there were great gaps in the world's definite knowledge. These gaps have of late been rapidly filled, until the Middle Ages are presented to us as a period of transition, in which great social forces were at work. Out of the fragments of the old society of Rome a new society was in process of making. This period is filled with romance, and yet, beneath the heroic tales of old chroniclers, men have begun to trace fundamental movements in human affairs. As has been hinted, it was during this period that the church was struggling for supremacy, both spiritual and temporal, rivaled by states which were groping toward national unity.

But beneath political and religious activities were the great facts of economic and industrial life. The slavery of Rome little by little gave way to the serfdom of the feudal system. This was a step in the emancipation of the common people. Then with the expansion of commerce, greatly stimulated by the crusades, and later by the discovery of the new western world, towns began to spring up, manufactures developed, intercourse and communication of ideas became more frequent and far-reaching. The life of the common people gradually changed. A struggle for liberty began. Towns rebelled against the impositions of feudal barons and little by little won rights and chartered privileges. From these centers of trade and new ideas, influences spread which affected the common people generally. The feudal system, which for a time had rendered real service, was weakened. The lords failed to do their duty by the serfs, yet continued to exact the old services and taxes. In the French Revolution the old feudal system, which had long been approaching its end, received its death-blow.

With the application of steam-driven machinery to production the industrial life of the people was again modified. They were drawn from rural communities into great

factory towns. The rapid increase of manufactures and the marvelous extension of commerce stimulated the development of great cities and set new problems for civilization.

Our present industrial order has gradually evolved out of the economic life of many generations in a perfectly connected series of changes, which may be studied and explained until they take on a new character. These facts of economic life are seen to be at the base of society. Wars, political intrigues, revolutions, class struggles are looked upon as largely the outgrowths of commercial and industrial life. Heretofore political history has engrossed attention, and only in comparatively recent times has the fundamental meaning of industrial facts been recognized.

In bridging over the period from the beginnings of modern history to connect them with the civilization of Rome, we come to a study of the Roman Empire at the height of its power, at the time when the best elements of early Roman civilization had not been altogether lost, when Roman society was still powerful and Roman government effective. A study of the daily life of the people gives us an insight into the real character of the imperial society. We see living in luxury a comparatively small portion of the population, supported by a great body of slaves. The privileged few carry the arts of life to a high degree of development. We are surprised to read of institutions, forms of social intercourse, means of amusement, fine arts, which seem in many ways to rival what we have regarded as the supreme achievements of a modern age. But the forces inherent in an unstable economic order finally brought about their inevitable results. A great populace supported by the largess of individuals and the state, an army irresponsible to any power, provinces plundered by rapacious officers, old traditions of civic virtue abandoned, the ancient religion weakened and ridiculed—these and other elements contributed to the result.

Art has too long been studied for itself and in isolation from the social conditions out of which it has grown. From primitive times men have sought expression for the art impulse. The development of religions has had a most important influence upon art forms. Architecture has had its chief stimulus in temple building. Sculpture and painting have grown out of the effort to embellish sacred structures with carvings and mural decorations. In studying the art of Rome and of medieval Europe the reader should seek constantly to establish connections between the civilization and its art forms. Rome took up the art tradition of Greece and adapted it to the changing needs of a new national life.

With the emergence of Christianity and its rapid extension in Europe various art forms were appropriated from Rome, from oriental architecture, and recombined in new types. Gradually the influence of the North made itself felt in the introduction of the so-called Gothic.

Again out of the feudal system and the monarchical organization of society came the demand for castles and palaces and sculpture and painting. To explain modern Florence and its art treasures we must study the history of the society to whose institutions these art forms stand as memorials. Art and life cannot be divorced.

This article has attempted to give a glimpse from the outlook tower. It has sought to direct the attention to the field as a whole. It now remains for Chautauqua readers to fill in for themselves the details of this picture. The vague first view must be made increasingly clear and definite. Generalizations apart from a study of facts are likely to be partial and of little value. But on the other hand the mere accumulation of facts without the view of the whole is fatal to orderly mental growth. Let each reader strive to preserve a just balance between these two extremes; on the one hand to gain clear and definite views of facts past and present, on the other to combine facts into a larger whole which shall display human history as a system of orderly development without a break in continuity.

(End of Required Reading for October.)

A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER VII.

FESTIVITY IN THE QUARTERS.

WHILE Max was yet several hundred yards from home that night he heard the measured footfall of dancers' feet, and on a nearer approach could distinguish Job's voice calling the figures in stentorian tones, and during the pauses the musical hum of a banjo set off by the twanging of a fiddle in unskilful hands. There was a weird attractiveness about the medley of sounds as borne to him on the night air. He had quite forgotten it, but this was the first time he had heard the music from the darkies' dance since he was a boy. How he used to delight in such scenes before he went away to college! A flood of reminiscences, half sad, half delicious—just as all our memories of a happy past, especially our childhood, are apt to be—thronged his brain. He would look in the window for a minute just as he used to do. Ah, there they were at it in the same old fashion! Was it possible he was still a boy and all those years he had seemed to pass through but a dream? No, no, for Job was then the hero of the pigeon-wing, and was now elevated to the dignity of master of ceremonies, while Pete had succeeded to the vacant place. What didoes the fellow was cutting! And Yellow Dick was emulating him, evidently to display his prowess before Mollie, the mulatto belle of half the plantations round. If he were not careful—There! it had come! Trying to leap as high as Pete, Dick's less active limbs could not stand the test and he landed with half a somersault upon the cabin floor, amid the jeers and shrieks of the onlookers, his rival's the loudest. But he speedily recovered himself and, emboldened by an encouraging smile from Mollie, again began his career for conquest, and the dance went on as before.

Max did not know how long he delayed in watching, for after a time, though still peering in at the window, he was oblivious of the present and was living again that last hour with Edith. And when finally he sought his bed he was wrapped in a haze of exquisite, pulseless content, like one who, after breasting stormy seas, is assured that on the morrow the long despaired harbor will be at hand.

It was clear from the scene we have just witnessed with Max that the festivities of the butchering were in high progress. Of all the year this occasion was the happiest to the negroes of the plantation; Christmas, the only festival which approached it, did not equal it in pure enjoyment. At Heart's Delight, as on other estates, the frolic lasted two days. The first, the day of preparation and anticipation, surpassed the event itself just as Christmas Eve does Christmas. Twenty years before a huge caldron, large as a modern bedroom, had been set in a convenient place and never moved. A dozen porkers could be scalded in it at once. Preparation began with filling this kettle with water and placing the wood beneath in readiness for to-morrow's fire. Even the piccaninnies helped to "tote" the water, and afterward stood round the fattening pens to listen to their elders' estimates of the weight of each animal. What a day it was for sharpening knives, for idling under the pretense of working, for singing snatches of songs, for exchanging jokes and banter, for happy, happy hearts! Everybody was in everybody else's way, all were giving orders and none obeying, each one was striving to get as much fun and as little work as possible out of this genuine holiday. But who cared? Not the master, certainly, for the work was done after all.

Every few minutes the maids from the house would be running down to snatch a word with the young bucks, busy at the grindstone, or dancing between turns to

keep warm in the crisp winter air, and making the air musical with plantation melodies. Even Uncle Isaac unbent somewhat from his solemnity and told tales of how "old mahsteh, mahs John's pa, he had de bigges' hawg killin' ub any gemmun in de cyounty when we lib in Ole Firginny. Ain' no niggeh on dis place eber seed no sech times ez we hed den," he declared.

Pete voiced the common sentiment when he exclaimed in the midst of the jollity:

"Lahd! Lahd, ain' I glad dat Wirey man ain' heah t'day t'int'feah wid all dis fun? Dat man, niggehs, am er wet blanket whereber he go."

"Haw! haw! True fuh er fac'," was chorused from a dozen throats.

"Den his cowhide am red pepper t' heat yeh up ergin," said Yellow Dick, who had been smart and mean enough to escape the overseer's lash.

"Shet up!" rejoined Pete. "It am de bes'es' niggehs whut he hate de mos'—ain' it, Job?"

The subject was a sore one, and Job deigned no reply. But Pete was not abashed. Seeing Mollie approach he danced toward her, singing:

Onct I lubed er yalleh gal.

But he found no comfort in that quarter.

"Don' come ernigh me, niggeh," said the girl. "You's pow'ful mo' lack er black ape den er man."

Pete wilted and hurried away, leaving Mollie to bestow her smiles on Dick.

Thus the day passed, to be crowned at night with the dance, as we have seen. The young fellows like Pete, scorning a bed, sat up all night, ostensibly to keep the fire going under the scalding kettle, but really because the delicious excitement would not let them sleep.

At the first appearance of dawn the sleepers were aroused, and by sunrise fifty splendid porkers were gibbeted on as many hooks. After breakfast, what cutting of lard and grinding of sausage and sifting of sage! Mrs. Seddon superintended personally this part of the work, and was busily engaged when Edith arrived and, not long after, Mr. and Mrs. Allyn.

Mrs. Allyn went into raptures over everything, as Edith had predicted she would: it was so novel, so homely, so delicious. She could not be persuaded to partake of any dinner except the sausage, crackling-bread, and coffee, declaring that bill of fare had more variety than the diet of Olympus, and was infinitely better adapted to the needs of any save immortals. The husband listened fondly to her praise and agreed to it all. How could he do otherwise? The plenty and comfort and revelry were so fascinating that even those who have been freed from bondage look back with longing to the good old days of the butchering-time and the midnight dance, just as the Israelites bemoaned the flesh-pots of Egypt.

All day Edith held Max at arm's length, but there was nothing discouraging in her reserve. He read her aright when he decided that she was seeking to know her own heart and dared not commit herself further till then.

"You will write to me?" he asked at his only opportunity.

She shook her head.

"Well, I shall write to you. You would not return my letters unopened, I know."

She laughed merrily.

"No, I promise not to do that."

Her happiness was contagious, and he carried a light heart on his journey.

When George went to The Oaks the next evening, to his delight he found Adolphus away. Poor fellow! he could not resist the temptation—he proposed and was rejected.

CHAPTER VIII.

WHOM ALL THE WORLD LOVES.

MAX found his business even more tangled than he had foreseen. Every moment of the day he must give to shaping that, but his evenings were left free to think of Edith and to write to her.

A letter is a test in many ways. Nearly any one who mingles with cultured society can learn to talk well, but ability to write is not thus acquired. One must know things to put them on paper and avoid detection. But besides being a criterion of knowledge it is an index to character. In

conversation we may use words to conceal our thoughts, but when the statement is unassisted by the accessories of voice and expression it is valued at its true worth. A man cannot be a hypocrite in a letter. He may try, but he is read as easily as his own words.

So Max, though he did not know it, was taking the sure way to win Edith. He wrote delightful letters, full of humor, lively descriptions, and touches of infinite tenderness; and, best of all, his rich, full nature breathed from every line. True to her word, she did not answer them, yet no one but herself knew how eagerly she awaited their arrival. Daily, if the weather permitted, her horse was saddled and she rode to Jefferson for the mail. When she reached a certain stretch of the road she read her letter, and at night in the privacy of her room she read it again.

Only once did she give token that she had heard from him. He had not written for two weeks, and every day her conjectures of his silence grew wilder; when a letter did come she clasped it to her breast in a transport of joy. He had been sick and could not write. There was an appealing hint of homesickness in the letter which she could not resist, so this little note went out by the next mail:

"Dear Max:

"I am sorry you have been sick. Try not to do so any more. It is lonely without you; all of us will be glad when you return. I enjoy your letters more than you can know. Write often.

"Yours affectionately,

"Edith.

"P. S. This is not a letter but a note, so I am not breaking my word, you see. I meant I would not write you a letter."

She had not said at all what she wished, but as she had tried three times without success she sent the missive in desperation. If it had been written with a diamond pen on gold plate it could not have pleased Max better. He had insight enough into her character to know how much these words had cost her; the postscript revealed volumes. So he loved and treasured it, and it proved to his hungering, thirsting soul both meat and drink.

No matter how grievous he considered his exile, he was fortunate in being away from home at this time, and Colonel Seddon had planned more wisely than he knew in sending him thence. His county, though reckoned as southern, had Union men enough to make the storm of dissension rage high. "I am a secessionist *per se*"; "Well I am not, though I am a secessionist for cause," were remarks heard every day, the former being the ultras and the latter the conservatives of the friends of slavery. Even the children clamored for secession, catching the spirit from their fathers. In the homely but expressive language of the Mississippi flatboatman, "The country was sp'iling for a fight," and nothing but a fight could have settled the differences then existing.

It was, though, a lucky thing for Max that he was off the scene. All his kinsmen and friends except Richard Allyn were opposed to his views. If he had been among them to engage in the threats and counter-threats produced by the election of Lincoln and the secession of the first states he would have been insulted times without number. Even the deep, tender affection which the master bore his brother could not have restrained his hot blood as the war cloud became more distinctly outlined. But with Max so far away all possible animosity was out of the question. In writing back he mentioned the progress of political events only incidentally, and the few at home who were acquainted with his sentiments began to recollect them vaguely, and persuaded themselves that when the issue came, if come it did, he would be loyal to the South.

Of course he did not escape discussion of the fated subject; with Texas wrought to secession pitch he could not flee from it unless he buried himself in solitude. But it is one thing to differ with a stranger and quite another to dissent from one's own blood and kin. Besides, Max set his face resolutely against any suggestion that war might result. Patriotism was not the prime

motive with him now; love had pushed it into the background, just as love has a habit of doing with other passions, though the other returns presently with redoubled force and assumes its rightful place. So Max, foreseeing how disastrous civil strife might be to his hopes, was like a man walking between a precipice and a mountain: at any moment the vortex may engulf him, but he steadfastly keeps his eyes on the heights in the hope of reaching them.

It is not singular that he should have held this attitude; many others did, though their expectation was not fathered by the fondest of wishes. President Lincoln's firm but conciliatory message tended to strengthen pacific anticipation, and thousands north and south were awaiting peaceable reunion.

Persistently, then, banishing misgivings, Max was bending every energy to conclude his business and hurry home. The months he had been away seemed years; he blessed each day as it passed, thinking he was that much nearer Edith. He did not know that he could win her, but he had hope—strong hope since her letter. How should he meet her? How would she greet him? If only he might see her alone at first! He would plead so masterfully that she could not resist.

He reached home unexpectedly one day in early April, and after a hurried greeting there and a rapid toilet hastened to The Oaks. He took a short cut through a wooded pasture and, eager as he was, reveled in the beauties of the spring. Violets peeped at him from under their green leaves, whispering of her; the birds warbled to him in strains only less melodious than Edith's; even the gentle south wind lapped him in joy, while the chaliced cowslip was burdened with hope. His heart sang in unison with nature, and his whole being was swept with triumphant rapture. He could have shouted with ecstasy; was he not going to meet his love?

Just then he saw her. The fates favored him and granted the meeting he wished. All unconscious of his nearness, she came walking down the lane in which the path he was following ended. He feasted his eyes upon her. How beautiful she was!—how dainty in her movements! With what imperial grace her head sat upon her shoulders!

He stepped behind a cluster of young saplings—he did not wish to be seen yet. Nearer she came. He could see the flush on her cheek, the light of her dark eyes. Still nearer she drew, with such springy step that she hardly crushed the tender grass on which she trod. Now he could see the changing emotions of her face as she turned it from grass to new-opened leaves, from flower to sky, in satisfied bewilderment at the spring's splendor.

When she reached the opening at the footpath he stepped before her. For one moment she looked at him helplessly dazed, all the color receding from her face. He censured himself for startling her, and said gently:

"Edith!"

"Oh, Max!" she cried joyfully, and advanced to meet him.

That was all; with one bound he had cleared the distance and caught her in his arms. He kissed her hair, her face, murmuring inarticulate words of endearment. The mighty torrent of his love burst through restraint and sought satisfaction. Finally he took her head between his hands and turned her face up to the light. In maiden modesty she lowered her eyelids till the lashes swept her cheek.

"Look at me, sweetheart," he pleaded.

Slowly and with reddening cheeks she turned her eyes to his.

"Will you give me the answer now?"

"Yes."

He held her off from him and looked into her eyes with an eagerness that made him tremble in spite of his effort to be calm.

"Will you, Edith Chester, take me, Maxwell Seddon, for your husband?"

"Yes."

It was well that the spot was secluded. He pressed her to his breast, crying, "At last! dear love—at last!"

Home they went through the dusk of the gathering twilight. They seemed to have changed characters: Edith, the impulsive

and spirited, was sobered with the new joy, while Max was wildly happy. All the devotion of those months of waiting poured itself forth in love's language.

They found Mrs. Chester alone in the sitting-room. Boldly putting his arm round Edith's waist, Max walked toward the mother, half risen from her chair, the words upon her lips checked by this extraordinary sight.

"Mother," he said, "Edith has promised to be my wife. Will you intrust her to me?"

There was nothing on earth Mrs. Chester would rather do; had she not been fairly praying for this very request? And, though it occurred to her that she ought not to yield too readily, her gratification prevailed and she answered heartily:

"Indeed I will, Max. There is no man living to whom I would rather give my daughter. Take good care of her, for she is the sweetest child that ever breathed."

When Max tore himself away at a late hour that night he did not go home to sleep. He was intoxicated with bliss. He had not left Edith without persuading her to name an early day for their wedding—as soon as he could have a house built and prepared for her reception. Therefore his brain was alive with plans. What a bower the nest for his bird should be! For the first time in his life he thought with exultation of his means—but all for her! for her! Wealth was nothing to him except to provide the luxuries she was accustomed to, he thought. How cruel the waiting would be! But he would shorten the time as much as possible by employing every workman at Jefferson and by importing more if they were needed. Again and again he relived those last hours from the meeting in the lane to the parting; every look of hers, every word of hers had bitten into his memory. Yesterday he was an impatient suitor, hopeful but racked with suspense; to-day he was the accepted lover. Ah, the difference! He did not fall asleep until near dawn and then all his dreams were of Edith, Edith, Edith.

At dawn the day before, Fort Sumter was bombarded and the war had begun.

CHAPTER IX.

THERE'S MANY A SLIP.

Max lost no time in acquainting his family with his prospects, and their satisfaction was hardly less fervent than his. He could not allow a day to pass before beginning his preparation, and gladly accepted his brother's offer to accompany him to Jefferson to arrange with the tradesmen for his house. They found the town in a tumult of excitement. It was Saturday, and the streets were thronged with people. Merchants were standing on the corners with their customers, the business of each alike forgotten.

"Have you heard the news?" cried the first man the brothers met. And not waiting for a response he continued, "Fort Sumter is bombarded and must soon surrender!"

"Then the war has begun," the colonel replied slowly.

Max opened his mouth as if to speak, but no sound came. His revulsion of feeling was pitiful. The sun of his hope dropped like a shot. War? Great God! He had forgotten that war was possible. The whole train of incidents which might ensue flashed through his mind. At least estrangement from his family would follow. And Edith? He had been mad to think fate would let him quaff a cup of unmixed joy. He had tasted its sweetness but to have it dashed away. But—ye powers!—it might be yet! it might be yet! He had forgotten there was an alternative!

The succeeding hours seemed afterward to have been a hideous nightmare. He walked about as in a dream, dazed, bewildered, doubtful of his own identity, borne hither and thither by those he accompanied. He was like a man going to execution. All the events of the day were blurred, because the keenness of the battle raging in his breast between the pros and cons dulled his faculties to all else. Ever and ever these two sides were marshaling their arguments, the one for secession, the other for union, and he stood by and watched the conflict, half aware that his soul was the arena. Once he began to laugh at some

reason presented, but the laugh ended in a groan.

He vaguely recalled meeting a group of whom Adolphus was the center, and how they boasted that the Yankees would be whipped before they knew the war had begun. George Dupey, who was in the same group, jestingly called attention to Max's white face.

"You look as if you had seen a ghost," he said.

A ghost—yes, of his shattered hopes. "You can be happy yet," said one voice. "Better honor than love," said the other. But it was all dimly outlined; nothing was distinct. He could not remember whether he answered George's sally.

Meanwhile the crowd was growing. The news spread like wild-fire, and the country gentlemen were flocking to town. At every arrival Max shivered. Each man was a link in a chain forged for his destruction. He had seen children make chains of daisies and now he fell to wondering how a chain made of human beings would look. For five minutes he puzzled over the manner of fastening them together. He even smiled at the odd conceit; he was dreaming still, and still that duel was storming within.

Once his brother, thoughtful of him even in the excitement, asked, "Shall we not go to see the carpenters now?" He was trusting everything to this marriage and wished it consummated without delay. Max shook his head.

"Not yet; there is plenty of time."

His voice sounded to himself as though it came from another person, miles and miles away.

The next impression remaining was of his brother making a speech from the court-house steps. He knew it was the afternoon of the same day, but weeks seemed to have intervened since morning. He stood on the outskirts of the throng filling the yard. His brother's familiar figure seemed to belong to the past. He even began to criticize his voice and bearing as he would a stranger's. What a superb leader he would make! At this moment the people were looking to him for counsel and guidance.

Then he saw two armies drawn up in battle array. He was on one side; this man, who was addressing the crowd with an eloquent conviction that evoked cheers at every period, was on the other in official uniform. Regiment on regiment was in the opposing force, but this face stood out from the rest as plainly as a lantern on a black night. He raised his gun to fire and an irresistible constraint pointed it straight at the officer. In vain he struggled to direct the shot otherwise. With perfect aim the ball pierced the leader's heart, and he fell to the ground in the midst of a gallant charge. Regardless of flying bullets and flashing sabers Max was beside his victim in an instant. With maniacal fury he tore away the clothing and placed his ear over the heart. Still!—all still!—the man was dead!

Then he awoke. The tears streaming down his cheeks cleared his brain. His brother was not dead; he was not his murderer. His first sensation was relief; the second brought as poignant distress as when he thought he had slain his dearest except one. For now he realized with the keenest intensity that the scene of the contest between affection and principle was within his own heart. Moreover he was assailed by frightful doubts as to whether it were really principle. His brother had called his views quixotic; they might be. Better men than he had gone to destruction following an *ignis fatuus* mistaken for duty. But his conscience approved; what of that? Conscience is the product of ourselves—our training and volitions. For years his had been shaped by the trend given it by one act of cruelty, as seen through the perspective of a boy's excitable, high-colored imagination. Conscience, forsooth! Was he the only man of all his kindred qualified to detect the right and wrong of every question? His brother was older and a thousand times better and wiser than he. "Oh, God!" he groaned. Those standing near looked at him curiously, misunderstanding. Thus the strife raged; either way it must end in tragedy.

Some sentiment which Colonel Seddon

was voicing arrested his attention, and he paused in his reflections.

"At the adoption of the Constitution," the speech ran, "the issue on slavery was relative to its financial, not its moral, side. On the latter point the states, northern and southern, were a unit; and it is a conceded fact that in private there were gentlemen from Virginia who pleaded for the abolition, not only of the traffic but of the institution of slavery, on higher ground than the question of dollars and cents. At that time slaves were owned in every community of our land. But now, when the South has learned to depend upon the institution and the North has found it cannot use the negro to advantage, nor will its inhospitable climate support a people inured to the tropics, an effort is made to take him from us. For, no matter under what specious guise the friends of the United States government may cloak their purposes, their paramount design is the immediate and national abolition of slavery. Early in the century a small band clamored for it on the plea of morality. It was the vexed question when Missouri was admitted to the Union. Again it showed its head during the Mexican War. In short, wherever and whenever in the midst of the great events of the century it has had opportunity to vaunt its claims and enlarge its following it has done so, until now it has swelled to such proportions that it can overawe government itself.

"And who are these brawlers who persecute honest men in the enjoyment of honest property? They are fanatics, schemers, bankrupts, adventurers, the over-zealous, followers of every noxious ism under the shining heavens, even to free-love-ism, the deadliest of all. God forbid that I should say there are not among them any worthy or sincere men!—such may be found in any delusion; but they are the few. Many of these noisiest abolitionists have never seen a full-blooded negro. They are as ignorant of his character and condition of servitude as an unborn babe. All their ideas are based on the wildest reports or an impossible romance conceived by a mind as destitute of knowledge as their own. Yet these are the ones who dare to instruct us in our duty!

"What we should do with the negro a freedman is far more puzzling than the negro a bondman. The race is an inferior one; legislation can never make it otherwise. The position it occupies in the South is logical and not un-Scriptural. We know how sacred is the responsibility of a master. We know that the relation existing between him and his servants is almost as intimate as between a father and his children. We treat our servants with indulgence in youth, with kindness in maturity, and sweeten their old age with respect and freedom from care. Some day, somewhere in the future, I doubt not that our darkies, by contact with the Caucasian race, will attain a manhood that will justify us in setting them free, and then it will be the southerner and not the Yankee who will cry loudest for their manumission.

"I had hoped until now that the dispute might be settled without arms; but the North has forced the issue upon us and must abide the consequences. All honor to Carolina for leading the vanguard to protect the liberty won nearly a century ago! We, too, are southerners! Shall we permit our property to be taken from us without striking a blow for rights every freeman prizes as inalienable? Of our own choice we adopted the Constitution which the patriots and founders of our republic drew up as the government of our Union; of our own choice we may withdraw from that Union when it becomes too burdensome—when the justice to all, which is the corner-stone of the Constitution, is ignored.

"Invasion is sure to follow the bombardment of Fort Sumter. My friends and neighbors, let us arm ourselves and go out to die, if necessary, in defending our property and homes. What the end will be, only Omnipotence can foretell, but at least we will show our enemies that southerners fight like heroes and die like men!"

Max turned away as desperate as when he began to listen. There was no common ground on which he and his brother could stand. While on other hearers the effect was electrical, crystallizing many a half

formed purpose, on him it was almost the reverse. But not yet had he reached a final decision. Any man under sentence of death craves a reprieve.

Leaving his friends, he mounted his horse and rode furiously toward The Oaks. He could not have told why he took that direction—the very one he would have seemed most likely to avoid. It was chiefly, perhaps, because he was consumed with longing to see Edith, to hear her dear voice, to read her love in her truthful eyes, to feel the firm clasp of her soft fingers.

But when he reached the gate he did not go in. He could not. As he rode the conviction grew that he dared not see her yet. This momentous question must be settled first, and settled by him alone. So he plunged the spurs into his horse and galloped past. On and on he went, neither knowing nor caring where. The faster the horse flew the better, but no speed could satisfy him. At last, miles beyond The Oaks, the animal stopped, utterly unable to go a step farther. It looked as though the devil had driven it.

The condition of the poor beast brought Max to his senses. Hastily ungirding the saddle, he seized the blanket and chafed the horse's flanks with vigorous hand. Then he placed his outer coat over the back of the cooling animal and walked it slowly back and forth through the unfenced woods at the side of the road. This care for the horse he loved was his salvation. It interrupted the train of his agonized reflections and when he took up the thread again it was with calmer mind.

Back and forth, back and forth he walked, seeking to know his duty. He discarded the question of slavery as nearly as possible; he accepted his brother's belief that at the right time the masters would manumit their slaves. He reduced all his self-examination to one inquiry: Could he honorably and conscientiously take up arms against his country in behalf of the Confederacy? He scorned a middle course. His intense feeling on the subject, as well as the satisfaction due his honor, permitted him a choice only between the alternatives of outright espousal of one cause or the other.

The sun was shining behind the lowest boughs when at last he replaced the horse's saddle, a smile in his heart and victory on his brow. Thank God, the struggle was over! In his inmost consciousness he had known all the time how it would end. Only his cowardice had prolonged it, he said to himself as he rode back to The Oaks. The history of this day had been a crooked line, but by God's grace he would waver no more, even if heartbreak were just ahead.

Edith saw him approach and went herself to open the door. He said not a word as he entered, but caught her in his arms and kissed her repeatedly. It might be his farewell.

When she was free to look at his haggard face she cried in alarm:

"What has happened?"

"Haven't you heard the news? The war has begun."

"Yes, I have heard that—but I don't know why it should make any southerner unhappy."

She looked at him inquiringly.

"Great God!" he groaned, and drops of sweat beaded his forehead. His purpose did not vacillate an instant, but he was finding it harder to tell her than he had expected.

Still she looked at him and still he hesitated.

"Don't you remember, Edith," at last he continued, "what was said at the supper-table and afterward between us in the garden that night Ned and I came from college?"

"Yes," she answered slowly.

"Don't you know I did not agree with my brother as to slavery and state rights?"

"You did not then, but you do now."

"No, Edith, not now, nor ever shall—so help me God!"

"Oh, Max! what do you mean?"

By an effort he spoke more calmly, pressing her hand in both his own.

"I mean, dearest, that this event has made every true man take sides for or against his country, and if my country needs me I must respond."

"Your country is the South, Max, and

much as I love you I could send you to battle for her."

He could not repress a thrill of joy and hope at this first spoken confession of her love, but he answered firmly:

"My country is the Union!"

She rose and stood facing him.

"Do you mean, Max,"—her tone was hard and metallic—"that you would fight against your own people, your brother—me, for those who would despoil us?"

"We do not see it alike, sweetheart; we have not cause for leaving the Union. I could not fight against the stars and stripes. Heavens! don't you suppose I would if I could? Pity me!" he said hoarsely, stretching out his hands.

But she turned away.

"Pity you! I—I—"

In a moment she continued:

"You understand, of course, that this breaks our engagement."

"Oh, Edith, Edith, don't say it! With your promise so fresh on your lips, how can you? Think of last night, my darling, and your word of love spoken to-day, and let our engagement stand!"

"I didn't know then that you were a traitor. Don't talk of fresh vows! What of your pledges to me—and then this decision? Max, if you really loved me you would be true to the South."

"I love you as my life. You know it. I would be worthy of you by being true to my convictions."

Again he extended his hands in eloquent appeal, but she would not see them.

"Why must you take sides at all? There will be plenty of others. Oh, Max, let us forget there is a war, and be happy again as we were last night!"

"Don't tempt me. God knows it's hard enough at best. If I did that I should despise myself and in a little while you would despise me too. Strengthen me in such an hour and leave me your love."

But she was obdurate. Her eyes flashed and she held herself proudly erect.

"You speak only of yourself. What of me? Have I no conscience and no sense of duty? I care not whether slavery be right or wrong; always I stand by my country against its foes. I hate them all—and you are one!"

He could endure no more. His blood was hot as her own.

"You will be sorry for this," he said bitterly as he left the room.

"Not sorry for what I said to-day, but yesterday," she called after him.

But when he had ridden away she burst into an agony of weeping. Love's young dream was shattered, and thenceforth she was a woman, with heavy, burdened heart.

"Why did Max leave before supper?" Mrs. Chester asked at the table.

"I didn't invite him to stay. He has cut himself off from us, mamma; he is going to join the northern army if the war continues."

"The traitor!" muttered Adolphus.

It was Edith's own word, but she would permit it from no other.

"He is acting from a conviction of right," she replied hotly.

Mrs. Chester was decidedly vexed.

"It seems to me, Edith, you could have kept him on the right side if you had tried. I am sure I had that much influence over my sweethearts. Your poor dear father—"

Edith could endure no more; she rose and left the room. Mrs. Chester's heart smote her, and later she sought her daughter, to find her apparently asleep. But when the mother bent above her with soft caresses and tender kisses, the girl threw her arms round that mother's neck and sobbed wildly on her bosom.

Max's anger did not last. It could not as he passed down the lane, sacred from the scene of the day before. He would not have been mortal if he had not been tempted a dozen times to return and renounce all allegiance to the Union. But each time the memory of that struggle in the wood and its final determination steadied him and sent him forward. Honor was his insuperable safeguard.

The ordeal was not yet over; he must apprise his brother of his purpose. Colonel Seddon was better prepared for the avowal than Edith had been, but received it no

more mildly. He pleaded, stormed, appealed in every way, but without effect.

"An abolitionist! a southern abolitionist!" he cried. "Thank God my father is dead and spared this disgrace!"

"Don't, John," entreated Mrs. Seddon. "Max, unsay what you have said; you will break your brother's heart."

Max was desperate.

"Do you think such a purpose lightly entered upon and able to be cast aside at will? Would I not think as you do if I could? My country is costing me my wife, my brother—everything!"

He burst into a flood of tears that would have moved a stone. Mrs. Seddon threw her arms about him and drew his head to her shoulder. "Poor boy! poor boy!" she murmured, as tenderly as a mother hushing her sick child to its slumber, her own tears falling in sympathy.

When he had composed himself somewhat he turned to the master.

"You would like me to leave the house, brother, I suppose."

"No! it shall never be said that a Seddon turned his brother from his door."

"But it would be pleasanter for us both. I think I'd better."

He kissed Mrs. Seddon and left the room, but in a moment returned. Walking straight to Colonel Seddon he extended his hand, saying:

"Brother, let us part friends. We may be separated for years—we may never meet again. You have been a father to me, and your wife a mother. You know how much I love you both. God help us all!"

Before he had half finished, his brother had grasped the outstretched hand.

"God bless you, Max, wherever you are! Good-by!"

Thus they parted, but the gloom of death settled down upon the household. The master neither ate nor slept; the servants went about with downcast faces; even little Nell's eyes were red with weeping.

Max went straight to Richard Allyn and laid bare his heart. He concluded the interview by saying:

"I shall leave the state at once. I will fight for the government, but not against my brother. There is no knowing what the fortune of war may bring to those I love. To you"—he glanced at his friend's lame knee. "You will not think of going into service?"

Allyn shook his head sadly.

"No, I am a worthless stick that must sit by and see others do my work."

"Forgive me that I am glad to have you here to look after my family. Watch over them as you would have me do were I guarding your loved ones. My every interest I entrust to you." His voice sank. "Write me regularly of her; you know how my life is bound up in hers. If I survive the war perhaps she—such a dream is madness—she hates me! I dare not hope."

Their hands closed in a clasp that could hardly be sundered; the eyes of both were brimming. Allyn broke the silence:

"You have done me the greatest honor possible. I shall reward your confidence. And I cannot believe but that you will be happy yet with her."

CHAPTER X.

MARS IN THE ASCENDANT.

THE place was Jefferson; the time, June of '61; the day, matchless as those of which Lowell sings in a matchless way. In the very sunshine there was an elixir, a quality of hope and buoyancy which would have filled the most despondent with perfect confidence.

The streets were even more crowded than on that calendar day when the news of Sumter was received. How changed now the citizens' feelings! Then their indignation was mingled with dismay; now in their sufficiency they imagined they could conquer the world. Were not their own men—their fathers, husbands, sons, and brothers—going out to fight the audacious enemy? And were not southern men invincible?

Two companies of Confederate troops had been raised at Jefferson and in the neighborhood. One of these was captained by Colonel Seddon, and the other—*mirabile dictu!*—by Adolphus. How he contrived to secure the nomination, or how it

happened to be thrust upon him without his contrivance—which of the two it was, no one seemed to know exactly—it was a puzzle. Doubtless his influential family and pronounced loyalty were the potent means. However it may have been, he had the honor, and deported himself in the new position as his acquaintances would suppose. He strutted about like a drum-major, indulged in such bravado that his former achievements in that line were mild in comparison, and drove his tailor almost distracted about his uniform.

The women of Jefferson, likewise, had not been idle. While men were organizing and spending their fortunes like water for arms and various accoutrements, their wives and daughters, with encouraging smiles and words, with heroic sacrifices, had strengthened their stronger hands, but no more determined wills. But woman's help did not stop with soft-voiced speeches. They eagerly performed every homely task that would forward the preparation; they scraped bushels of lint, knitted hose, wove cloth, made shirts and many a suit of gray, and prepared splendid flags of the new design.

It was the last which had brought the crowd to Jefferson this first June day. The young ladies had made two mammoth banners for the troops to carry away, and this time, the day preceding departure, had been set for the presentation. Edith, much against her will, had been chosen to present the flags with a short speech. She had thrown herself heart and soul into the movement, partly for reasons which may be easily guessed, and was the most fitting representative for the duty, but she shrank from it. War was too stern a reality for her to enter with zest into its festivals or gala-making. So she pleaded to be excused from any such display; the others insisted; more pleading, more insistence, and finally she yielded.

The program opened with a drill by the two companies. Since their organization the time had been occupied with learning the simplest principles of military tactics, and though they were the veriest bunglers the men were as delighted to show off their new accomplishment as schoolboys. Colonel Seddon—or Captain Seddon, as he should now be called—had recalled all the knowledge acquired in his brief army life to impart it to his soldiers, and, however unsatisfactory the result may have been to him, to the fond eyes of the onlookers the evolutions seemed faultless. What though many were yet without uniforms and their arms were of every make under the sun? Uniforms were not needed to fill them with courage, and the effectiveness of firearms depended on those who used them. Besides, at the first battle everything necessary would be supplied from the spoils of the vanquished. The sanguine southern temperament is prone to minimize obstacles and magnify possibilities. Otherwise the war would not have lasted four years, for from the outset the difficulties which were held as trifles would have seemed insurmountable to cooler heads. At bottom, if one but look closely enough, this trait is heroic, and has been the attribute of every hero from Hercules to the present.

The ladies viewed the parade from a platform erected for the purpose, and after the drill the companies were drawn up in front of the stand. As Edith walked out from the throng of maidens the commanding officers advanced to meet her. At her side was George Dupey with the flags. The scheming he had found necessary to secure this coveted post would have immortalized him in a political campaign.

Edith was pale with excitement and the novelty of the position, and her brown eyes glowed more lustrously than ever. She was dressed in the sheerest of organdy, in pattern a white ground sprigged with pale green leaves, and her wide leghorn hat was trimmed with green ribbons. For a moment she stood, graceful, supple, looking out upon the upturned faces, as if to collect herself. As she thus stood she was beautiful enough to be herself the cause of war had she lived in the mythical days of chivalric Greece. The breeze spread the folds of the flags till they almost encircled her; she might have personified the Old South, its last and most perfect flowering.

For an instant only she remained silent; then her vibrant, ringing voice could be heard by the farthest listener:

"Soldiers of the Fifth and Sixth Companies: In the name of your wives and mothers, your sisters and sweethearts, I present you with banners made by their fingers, consecrated by their tears, blessed with their prayers. These are pledges of our confidence in your valor and your ability to return victorious to those waiting at home. Southern women have no fear while there are southern men to protect their liberties. Your cause is just, your courage is undying; what have we to fear? And if it will brave your hearts to even greater deeds, be assured that at reveille, at taps, in the hush of midnight, in the roar of battle, at every hour of all the day, our prayers for your success are ascending heavenward."

She had hardly concluded when a strong-lunged fellow shouted:

"Three cheers for our wives and mothers, sisters and sweethearts!"

The cheers were given with a will, and in the glow of this enthusiasm Captain Seddon made his speech of acceptance.

"Miss Chester and ladies: In the name of my comrades I thank you for this memorial of your confidence. If any touch were needed to unify us, to inspire us with dauntless intrepidity, it has been given to-day. In no section of the globe is woman so truly a queen as in our own South—adored as maidens, worshiped as wives, reverenced as mothers, loved always. In going forth to battle for inalienable rights we are nerved by the thought of our firesides where you are waiting and praying. As guerdon of your trust we promise to rival the deeds of the most redoubtable heroes, and, if the God of battles will it, to win glorious victory."

The speech was almost cut short by sight of Ned, who came hurrying through the crowd, waved his hand gaily to his father, and clasped his mother round the neck before she knew he was nearer than Virginia. But surprise was not her chief sensation; she had been dreading that he would be impatient to take a hand in such stirring scenes, and now the worst had come.

When his father had finished he sprang to the ground, and tossing his hat high in the air yelled:

"Hurrah for southern rights, and down with the Yankee!"

This display of feeling was the spark which starts the mine. Every man, woman, and child took up the cry. Grizzled old farmers shook their neighbors' hands with tears in their eyes and resistance on their lips. The recruits shouldered their guns in most unsoldierly fashion and ran from one to another, encouraging, boasting, many sobbing aloud in their excess of indignation. Women bade their friends good-by as though sending them on a wedding journey; they had not a gloomy foreboding.

Ned was everywhere.

"I heard your speech, Edith, and it was fine."

Next moment he was wringing Mr. Mayhew's hand.

"You are going with us as chaplain, mother wrote me, Mr. Mayhew."

"With us, Ned?"

"Yes, sir, I am going too. Hello, George, you looked the proudest man in the state to-day."

Then he thought of Max and sighed, for he was in such triumphant mood that he could be compassionate even to the foes of his own blood.

At this moment he met his father, whose hands he seized.

"Father! dear father! you will be a major-general if we don't whip the Yankees too soon. You are the handsomest soldier of the Confederacy."

The father smiled and asked:

"What are you doing at home so soon, my son?"

"I came to join your company. I cut commencement. Jove, didn't I hurry!"

Captain Seddon shook his head, but now was not the time to discuss the subject. Already the crowd was beginning to disperse. The soldiers were eager to join their families for this last night at home.

Ned went home in the carriage with his mother and Nell—his father was detained by the business of his company—and immediately applied himself to winning his mother's consent to his joining the army. In vain she adduced argument after argument against it; he overruled them all. Finally she played her last card:

"If you should be killed it would break my heart."

Her eyes filled with tears and she drew the boy close to her heart in inexpressibly tender appeal.

"Don't go, Neddie," pleaded Nell. See how you are making mother cry."

"I'll not be hurt, mother," Ned remonstrated. "You know what a lucky dog I have always been. It will break my heart if you don't let me go."

It ended with her consent, as he knew it would from the beginning. Then he hurried to the quarters. The little darkies spied him long before he reached them and set up the shout, "Dah Mahs Ned! Dah Mahs Ned!" The cry brought half a score of woolly heads out of the cabins and nearly as many strapping fellows from the fields near by. Uncle Isaac was sitting outside his door, sunning himself in the warm rays of the welcome sunshine.

"Hello, Uncle Isaac, how are you?" was the young master's cordial greeting.

"I's mighty po'ly, mighty po'ly, Mahs Ned. Dat Pete's de rampagiones' niggeh! He am bringin' meh gray ha'h in sorruh t' de grabe."

"Why, I thought Pete would have gotten over his Prodigal Son ways by this time."

"Lahd, mahsteh, he's er gittin' wuss. He's de Provigul an' G'liah an' little Abe whut killed his brudder all in one."

"Here's the scamp now. Pete, what have you got to say for yourself?"

Pete hung his head in abject shame and made no reply, so Ned continued:

"I'll tell you what I'll do, Uncle Isaac. I am going to the army to-morrow, and I'll take Pete with me. Father will take Job and I want Pete."

Pete grinned from ear to ear with delight. He could have thrown himself at the boy's feet in gratitude. But his father raised a howl:

"Oh, Mahs Ned, don' do dat! don' do dat!"

"Why not?"

"Pete am de on'y child I'm got. He am de joy ob meh ol' age. Dem raskilly Yankees 'll shoot Pete jes' ter spite me,' ca'se I b'longs t' one ob de fus' famblies ob Firginny; den I ain' hab no chile! Please, Mahs Ned, don' take meh one lamb."

Half crying, the old man poured forth without pause this string of remonstrance. Pete thought his father had gone stark, staring mad; it was the first instance of affection for his "one lamb" the old darky had ever shown. In spite of himself Ned screamed with laughter at the sudden change of front.

Uncle Isaac's consent was harder to obtain than Mrs. Seddon's had been, but Ned and Pete gave him no peace till he had yielded. And at last, although Ned had assured him repeatedly that Pete could not go into a fight if he would, and would be clear out of range of musket and cannon, and would be in no more danger than if he were quietly hoeing corn at home—at last, in the face of all assurances, the old man gave in because it was the young master asking a favor and not that he was satisfied.

When Ned had returned to the house, Pete, hands in pockets and head high in the air, assumed the consequence of a peacock.

"I 'low I'll come back er kunnul, pappy, lack mahsteh," he called to his father, now sitting inside the door, with his head bowed upon his hands.

A groan was the only response. Isaac's ideas of war and the duties of a body-servant were as vague as Pete's.

"Fool, you!" taunted Mollie, the belle, angry with herself for not having been more friendly, now that the fates were smiling on honest, ugly Pete. "Fool, you! Kunnul ob er hawg-pen!"

But Mollie's disdain was of no moment; no cloud could come in Pete's sky that day. He went about his preparation for leaving, absolutely happy.

Ned met his father at the gate with the

announcement that he was ready to go. Zealous as Captain Seddon was, he could not fail to appreciate Ned's ardor, but he heard his plans with reluctance.

"Your mother needs you at home, Ned," he urged.

"Why, father, the darkies know exactly what to do."

"And in the fall you should be at school again. No gentleman can claim such a title without an education, if he can possibly get one."

"Father, could you study at such a time?"

"No, I could not," was the frank answer, and there the discussion ended.

But the master was determined that Job should remain with his mistress to relieve her of all care possible and that Pete should serve both him and Ned. Job was too faithful to murmur, but Mrs. Seddon did. She wished her husband, utterly unaccustomed to caring for himself, to have Job's thoughtful services. The master was firm, however, and had his way.

The following day they rode away, brave, gallant, conscientious, full of high hopes, with no prophetic vision of the result. But Mrs. Seddon's tears fell like rain, and all the days succeeding her heart kept time to the hopeless refrain, "Never, never more."

(*To be continued.*)

ELECTRICITY IN THE HOUSEHOLD.

BY GEORGE HELI GUY.

IT has been pointed out as a satisfactory national characteristic that when once the American has had a thing well brought to his notice, and it is explained to him as the best of its kind, he immediately determines to have that best or none. This is certainly true of the electrical equipment of the modern American house, the installation of which, on a scale of remarkable elaboration and completeness, is now one of the first considerations of the architect in preparing the design of a new structure.

Current from some source is now generally available. In the city it is drawn from the local central station mains. In large country houses private plants are becoming the rule rather than the exception. Often the motive power for these is supplied by a windmill, which, in conjunction with a set of storage batteries, ensures all the electricity that is needed for light and power in the house and grounds. As it costs but a few hundred dollars and can be run for a dozen years at practically no expense beyond the cost of lubricants and an occasional cleaning, it brings a private current supply within reach of a large number of people.

In no respect has electricity worked a more conspicuous revolution in the household than in that of lighting. It has been said that before long the lighting engineer will play as important a part as the architect in the designing of both public and private buildings, and to this functionary the question of the hygienic and most effective illumination of the various apartments will be referred. Already artistic lighting has become a distinct calling (in which it is not surprising that many women are finding a congenial sphere of work), and effects of marvelous beauty are being created.

In a house lately built each room brings out a new possibility in the treatment of artificial light. The scheme of color of the billiard-room, for instance, the theme of whose decoration is based on the impression given in nature by a wood in autumn, is in green, brown, and amber. This scheme is carried out not only in the paneling and the furniture but also in the lighting. The electric lamps are so arranged as to illuminate the room generally with diffused light and still leave a strong light projected on the billiard-table. The archways of the room have large metal sconces, with hanging lamps well shaded from the table and still

giving a light convenient to those reading while leaning back on the settees. The central fittings consist of six separate pendants, suspended by flexible cords from the ceiling. Half-way down the cords are two disks of hammered brass. On the lower and larger one are two incandescent lamps, the rays from which are thrown upward to the other disk, which disperses them through the room. A bright glow is diffused around without there being any point of light to catch the eye or distract the attention of the players. Below the disks are ornamental lamps which light the table itself.

In another room, decorated on a white ground with a rose design in pink and green, the electric fittings are relied on to further develop the theme of the apartment. They consist simply of two entwined circles of gilded wrought iron, representing the stem of a rose-bush, and at each intersection a pendant drops in the form of a gilded saucer. From its center springs a brightly shining lamp, and round its edges are crystal beads, to give the idea and the sparkle of dewdrops among the roses.

The lighting of the dinner-table alone has advanced to an art, and the electrician of a well-known family seat at Newport is said to be employed for much of his time in designing new combinations of light and flowers for dining-room decoration. A pretty idea is the electric fountain, either oval or square, which is much in vogue. Its top edge is finished in filigree, and upon it is molded a piece of electroplate representing rocks, and supporting the glass basin upon outspreading fern leaves. The basin holds cut flowers, and the spray jet and shower can be imbued with varicolored lights by the pressure of a set of buttons in the table, within reach of the hostess.

The drawing-room artistically lighted by electricity gives evidence of the extent to which the modern illuminant has freed itself from the stiffness and heaviness of the old chandeliers and massive sidelight fixtures. Electric lamps can be introduced anywhere; in semi-transparent panels, within vases, or, with exquisite effect, within sea-shells, or suspended from ornamental figures. Curio cabinets can be illuminated by shaded lamps inside, and their contents shown without even opening the doors of the case. The fireplace may be studded with lamps, grouped so as to reflect light from mirrors or sconces, or to simulate fire itself.

The tendency of household lighting is toward diffusion—to do away with the old wasteful blotches of light, that racked the nerves of the eye, and to fill the apartment with a soft luminance, at once restful and artistic. One of the most fascinating forms of illumination is produced by placing incandescent lamps out of sight in a ledge near the ceiling. The light is thrown into the room by reflectors, and can be colored at will by the placing of glass disks over the lamps. The effect of the glowing, tinted atmosphere is indescribable. More than one radical development in lighting methods is imminent, which will materially affect the cost and operation of house illumination. Phosphorescent lighting is understood to have been brought to a commercial phase, and soon our rooms will be illumined by glass tubes, placed along the cornice, which will fill the apartment with cool, diffused, though ample, radiance. One interesting feature of this light is that the color of the vacuum tube within which it is created by the intensely rapid vibration of the ether molecules can be changed by varying the degree of vacuum, or even by a slight readjustment of the circuit. The decorative possibilities thus opened out are infinite. The pervading lighting tint of a room could be modified or changed in endless combinations of all the colors of the rainbow.

An important step in the diffusion of light to which all recent improvements in methods of illumination are trending is the invention of a globe whose entire surface is divided into rings, mathematically calculated, the dividing lines of which are made as nearly as possible in the direction of the incident rays. Near the top of the globe the rings have the form of doubly reflecting prisms, which deflect the light downward through the lower portion of the globe. The effect is brilliant, while there is no

strain on the eye. The globe intensifies the actual amount of illumination, while softening its quality.

In the best-appointed houses of recent construction, ventilation is effected by an electric device which keeps the rooms cool in summer and at a wholesome warmth in winter, the temperature being automatically regulated during both seasons by a thermostat. What the incandescent lamp is to artificial lighting, the electric heater is to artificial heating. It is steady, agreeable, and controllable, free from dust, gas, and odor, and always ready for use. The current of air passing through every room can be adjusted both as to volume and temperature. For instance, the drawing-room thermostat or regulator can be set at 70°, while that in the hall is fixed at 60°. If the apartment cools below the limiting point, an electric circuit is broken and more heat is admitted until the normal degree is restored. In summer the house can be kept at a refreshingly cool temperature by the impulsion of cold air through pipes by large fan motors. The use of the fan motor of average size in rooms where ventilation is defective is now universally familiar. The *punka*, in its placid and oriental way, is to the East Indian what the fan motor is to the American, and it is actuated to-day, as it has been for centuries, by a coolie, whose greatest anxiety usually is to discover how soon the *sahib* is asleep. In spite of the disadvantages of the *punkawallah*, the East Indian is distinctly incredulous as to the ability of any mechanical contrivance to take the place of the *punka* and give its leisurely and rhythmical beat. Notwithstanding this natural conservatism, it is claimed that the new electric "punka puller" imitates almost exactly the quick pull and slow return of the *punkawallah*. The electric motor may not be so picturesque as an olive-skinned, beady-eyed coolie, in white tunic and scarlet *cummerbund*, but it is infinitely more reliable and conducive to evenness of temper.

Where the advantages of a general system of heating are not available, the electric radiator is in great request. It is both ornamental and handy, and can be shifted about to heat a corner of the room, or placed near the piano, to give just the necessary degree of warmth to keep the fingers of the music student from stiffening during a winter morning's practice. In bedrooms it is invaluable, as it can be regulated to take the chill off the air without raising the room to the unwholesome heat the maintenance of which is a vicious and sadly too common indulgence. Placed in the bathroom, it can be started in the morning by pressing a button in a bedchamber in any part of the house, so that by the time the bather is ready the room is at an agreeable temperature.

A notable utilization of electricity, in the enlightened tendency of higher civilization to breathe better air and more of it, is the domestic ozone machine, which disseminates ozone throughout the atmosphere of the house, keeping it fresh and healthy. All indoor air is more or less bad, no matter how good the ventilation may be, and medical men have long looked forward to a cheap and easy method of ozonizing it as one of the greatest blessings that could be given to humanity.

Another domestic novelty is an electric window-sash operating device, which enables all the windows in the house to be instantly closed, say on the approach of a storm, without a visit to each window being entailed. This invention has also been applied to churches, in which the pastor, with a switchboard on his pulpit, can let in a supply of air from one or a dozen windows, whenever the atmosphere of the church becomes oppressive.

In the bedroom the electric current provides many novel facilities. Nowadays almost every woman, with the current available, has an electric curling-iron, which is the only appliance yet devised that will effect its purpose without incurring the risk of burning the hair. Another electrical addition to the paraphernalia of the toilet is the hair-dryer. The hair is spread out over a wire framework, placed over a blower, and a steady stream of warm air is forced through it by electricity, drying it rapidly

and thoroughly. The usefulness of this device is not, however, confined to one sex; it is coming into vogue in barbers' shops as a "rounding off" to the popular shampoo. The bedroom fluid heater is another device of great utility. It is a silver-plated bulb or coil, that is plunged into a tumbler or any vessel containing the water or other liquid to be heated. It is most handy in invalid chambers, where liquids have to be warmed or boiled on short notice at all hours of the day and night. It will boil half a pint of water in three minutes.

In summer time any lamp may be unscrewed from its socket and the cord attached to a fan motor, which can be run at any speed, and will often do much to render a long hot night endurable and sleep possible. On cold nights the flexible cord can be connected to an electric foot or bed warmer, and the chill can be taken off the sheets.

The class of persons who retain the traditional fear of the hidden burglar find great consolation in the secret push-button placed at the head of the bed and connected with an alarm at the nearest police station. In fact, with such an appliance at command, it is almost a disappointment that the thief does not materialize. The sensation of noiselessly touching the button and knowing that the more busily the gruesome visitor is engaged the more certain is his capture at the hands of the policemen who are hastening from the station, must be unique.

But this is only one of a hundred existing resources for protection against the housebreaker. It has been truly said that it is easier for a camel to go through the eye of a needle than for a burglar to make a successful raid on a building completely equipped with electric alarm devices. It is not at all necessary that the occupants of the premises shall take any active part in resisting the burglary. They can lie quietly in bed, and yet be aware of every movement of the unsuspecting thief below. He may touch the wire of the fence enclosing the grounds, or tread on the door-mat, or open a window, or tamper with a lock, or cut through a wood panel. In any of these cases an alarm is telegraphed all over the house, and at the police station, and even if the cracksman should get inside the house an invisible wire, stretched across the hall or threading the corridors, may at any moment swing upon him the barrel of a swivel-gun and discharge its contents simultaneously. The electric fire-alarm is equally trustworthy. It is sounded at the fire station by the operation of a thermostat in any room in which the temperature has been raised above a certain point by an incipient fire.

Whether, in the long run, electricity has done the solitary bachelor a good turn is a debatable question, but it has certainly eased the burden of his domestic anxieties. While he is dressing he connects his electric coffee-pot, and the brewing of his morning beverage proceeds forthwith. Meanwhile his eggs are being cooked in the electric boiler, or a chop is being done to a turn on the electric gridiron, which gives an unmatched flavor to the meat. As he sits down to the table slices of bread are placed in the electric toast-rack and are browned before his eyes. If he be an adept of the chafing-dish, he can produce the subtlest culinary effects without fear of failure.

The modern kitchen is supplied with an electric cooking outfit—oven, broiler, plate stove, coffee-pot, teakettle, and chafing-dish—and the knives are cleaned and the dishes are washed by an electric motor. The fumes of the cooking pass up the overhanging flue, and no unpleasant heat is radiated from the utensils. The food cooked is unsinged and juicy, tempting both to the eye and the palate. Indeed all the meats electrically cooked are most appetizing. The heat is always sufficient, but never excessive; it can in every case be regulated to meet the requirements of the particular dish. In fact electric cooking is a revelation, and it gives a new and immeasurably quickened force to the time-worn aphorism as to the respective origin of the meat and they who prepare it for the table.

The new thermopile will be greatly appreciated in household work. It produces electricity direct from heat—what electricians have been trying to do for ages. In-

side a metallic case, that can be slipped into a hat-box, is a Bunsen burner, the flame of which plays on a series of metal "couples." If you want electricity, all you have to do is to light the Bunsen burner. Possessing a thermopile, the householder is independent of both central stations and batteries; with current from it he can operate electric bells, drive sewing-machines, fan motors, and a variety of apparatus, and even instal his own electric lighting plant.

An electrical mechanism is devoted to the pounding out of music on the piano; but those who have any regard for the touch and action of their instrument will do well to be content with the possibly less skilful, but assuredly less vicious, manipulation of human fingers.

Much of the work of private laundries is now done with electric irons, the clothes being also electrically washed and dried. The servants are much less fatigued than with the old system, and the day's task is finished in half the time it used to be.

For the benefit of victims of the fly pest, a humorous inventor announces, as a summer novelty, an annihilator of moths, flies, and mosquitoes. It consists of an incandescent lamp, placed inside a large globe, which is coated externally with a mixture of honey and wine, or any other seductive viscous mass. The windows and doors are closed, the blinds drawn down, and the current is turned on. Before long the insect life, attracted by the glare, will be found sticking to the glass globe. After a dip into hot water the trap is ready to be reset.

There is a multitude of new domestic uses of the telephone. A great deal of shopping is now done telephonically. In some cities a special service is supplied when there is sickness in a family, and constant communication with the doctor is necessary, and an invalid's instrument has been invented whereby the isolation from the outside world incident to infectious diseases is mitigated. In some places the idea of paying social calls over the wire has been put into actual operation.

Of innumerable other electric devices for the household it must suffice to mention one, the great convenience of which is day by day being more thoroughly realized—the electric elevator. Stairs will soon be looked upon as a barbarism. It is now as easy, and relatively as cheap, to have an electric elevator in a private house as in a large building. It is made to work automatically, so that it entails not the slightest danger. An invalid or a child can operate it; it stops only at each floor, and starts by the pressing of a button only when the door is closed. A variant of this convenient means of household transportation is a small electric motor, which runs on a guide attached to the balustrade of the stairs. The motor carries a seat, which holds one person, who by a lever can regulate the speed at which he is carried up to the top of the house or down to the bottom.

Thus electricity, after promoting the cultivation of the useful arts of life, adapts itself to domestic needs and graces, and, going hand in hand with culture and luxury, heightens the beauty and enhances the comfort of the modern household.

GOLD-FIELDS OF ALASKA AND THE YUKON.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

THE newspapers had their joke, thirty years ago, about the ice manufactory which Secretary of State Seward had bought for us from Russia for $7,200,000. We knew scarcely anything of Alaska then, and the great territory, a fifth as large as the rest of our country, is still only partly explored; but we know Alaska does not produce as much ice as was supposed and is rich in other resources of a desirable character. We purchased Alaska at a bargain. The territory is returning to the country every year about as much as it cost us, and its resources in gold, in timber, in

fish, and in coal and petroleum are still almost untouched. The rapacity of sealers has half ruined one industry, but in all other respects we have barely scratched the surface of a part of Alaska.

The chief interest centers to-day in the gold-fields, and particularly in the placer diggings; for some of the richest placers ever found have been worked since June, 1896, in the Yukon region. It is too early to pin much faith to the assertion, often heard, that these are the greatest finds of alluvial gold ever known. We do not yet know the extent of these placer fields nor how soon their wealth may be exhausted. We know that the bars within easy reach at the mouths of little creeks emptying into Forty Mile River, one of the oldest of the Yukon mining fields, have become exhausted. We know that each of a number of great placer camps in California and Montana yielded a larger amount of gold than the entire product which Alaskan and Yukon miners have as yet sent home. Still, the story of the Klondike finds is very wonderful; and the results, thus far, of the study of the upper Yukon encourage the belief that the most extensive and productive area of alluvial gold-fields yet discovered is just beginning to be developed.

In one respect the history of the first year on the Klondike appears to be unequaled by that of any other placer gold camp. Who ever heard before of a considerable colony of gold-claim owners none of whom drew a blank? Not one of the three hundred holders of placer claims on the Klondike and its tributaries has failed, in the first year, to make a stake. There was large disparity in the amounts of the precious metal obtained, for while many cleaned up only $5,000 there was a number of exceptional prizes ranging from $30,000 to $60,000 and up to $130,000. But not a man in the diggings failed to make money; and even the miners who worked by the day for $10 to $15 were able to show a fine sack of gold-dust at the end of the first season. This phase of the first Klondike results is remarkable.

The spelling and origin of some of the names most frequently seen in the newspaper reports are interesting, and it is desirable that uniform orthography be used. The name Yukon was first applied to the great river of Alaska by Mr. J. Bell, of the Hudson Bay Company, in 1846. He understood this to be the Indian name of the river. The name of the Klondike River is still spelled in three ways. To represent more exactly the pronunciation of the Indian name it should be spelled "Thron-Diuck," but the miners' version has been accepted, and the name should be spelled according to the simple and common-sense rules of our Board on Geographic Names. The authoritative spelling is "Klondike," as it is now appearing in all our government publications. The Indian name of the inlet which is the nearest approach to Chilkoot Pass from Juneau is "Taiya," and the miners have given the name to the landing-place at the head of the inlet where they begin the march over the pass. But they have long spelled the name "Dyea," and on account of its common acceptation our government has adopted this spelling. To secure uniform orthography all writers should adopt the nomenclature in the latest Alaskan chart of our Coast and Geodetic Survey, corrected to August, this year, for these spellings will appear hereafter in all official reports and maps, and are in accord with the orthographic rules of the leading geographical societies.

Alaska abounds with gold, and we have no idea as yet of the extent of its gold-bearing ledges and placers. It has been found, for instance, in central Alaska on the Tanana River, on the rivers of far northern Alaska, and in other regions, none of which has yet been prospected, even in the most cursory manner. In a commercial sense it was first revealed along the southeast coast in 1873, and it was seven years later, when Joseph Juneau reported its existence in important quantities in the neighborhood of the now famous town that bears his name. It is on Douglas Island, near Juneau, that the great Treadwell mine, which Mr. John Treadwell bought for $400, is operating the largest stamp

mill in the world, pounding out gold from the low-grade ore at the rate of $70,000 to $80,000 a month, at a cost of about one third of the product. Ten mills are in operation at the mines in this district.

Coast mining in southern Alaska is almost exclusively confined to quartz mining, and gold-bearing ledges are being found all along the extensive and tortuous coast, from Sundum Bay in the South to Unalaska in the North, a distance in a straight line of over twelve hundred miles, though the coast is much longer. Many of the hundreds of islands that skirt this coast-line are rich in promise, and a number of them are yielding their gold, particularly in the Sitka, Juneau, and Sundum regions; and a number of placer regions on the coast, where the comparatively poor man may seek gold-dust, are opening here and there, and particularly in Cook Inlet, far north, where some hundreds of miners are rewarded by from $10 to $20 for a day's digging.

It is nearly half a century since the discovery of gold placers in the Sierras turned the eyes of the world to California, and that state still yields about a third of our total gold product. For scores of years to come we may expect that these great quartz ledges that outcrop along the coast and on the islands of Alaska will largely swell the total of our gold product, and mining there will always be facilitated by the coast climate, which is never very hot in summer or cold in winter.

The two types of mining carried on in Alaska to-day are quartz mining on the coast and placer mining in the upper Yukon region of the far interior. But considerable placer mining is also done on the coast, while quartz crushing is certain to become a leading feature on the Yukon. For some years to come, however, we may observe the broad distinction, in Alaskan gold-mining, of quartz crushing on the coast and placer digging in the Yukon district.

There is a great contrast, in accessibility and climate, between these two mining regions. It is child's play now to travel to the Alaskan coast mines from New York compared with the dangers and hardships of the overland route to California during the rush of the early days; but the journey to the Yukon is more difficult and perilous than that across our big plains in the fifties.

Of the four overland routes, those by Chilkoot and White Passes are nearest the headwaters of the Lewes River, where passengers and freight take to the water highway; and the Chilkoot route is generally selected, because, though the pass is arduous climbing, the route is less interrupted by land portages, and the distance from the sea to the lakes where boats are launched is only twenty-seven miles. About a dozen miners every year lose their lives in the river rapids that carry them toward the Yukon at the rate of thirteen to fifteen miles an hour. The Canadians believe the White Pass, also called the Skagway, just east of Chilkoot, is the coming route; its grades are not so steep, and they say a wagon road or even a railroad may be carried across. In a year more we shall probably know how future gold seekers are to reach the Yukon with least expense and hardship. The all water route, by way of the Yukon's mouth, is not popular, because it is twice as costly, four times as long, and much of the short summer season has passed before the steamboat traveler reaches the gold-fields.

The gold quest probably never took fortune-hunters to so desolate a region and so wretched a climate. In the short summer the temperature rises to 90° and 100° in the shade. In the long winter the temperature is 40° to 60° below zero for many days in succession. Not a few strong men are invalided by the summer's humid heat; clouds of moisture from the thawing earth fill the air, and in this heat and humidity mosquitoes reach their highest development and aggressiveness. The gold-bearing dirt and gravel can be sluiced only during sixty to eighty days of the year, and until two years ago mining operations were mostly confined to three short months. But new methods, suggested by the climatic conditions, have now revolutionized placer mining on the Yukon.

To-day the miners are working the year round. At first they tried explosives to break the frozen earth into chunks, but this expedient was not a success. Then in 1895 two men on the Birch Creek diggings conceived an idea which deprived the saloons and dance-halls of Forty Mile and Cudahy of most of their patrons—the miners who lived in idleness for three fourths of the year at these two towns. These men remained on their claims during the winter, and every night they kindled the spruce boughs and twigs which they had spread over the ground. In the morning two or three inches of the gravel were thawed, so that the stuff might be shoveled out and heaped up on the surface. This process was daily repeated, and, though the gravel heaps froze again, the particles had been separated, the hot summer sun soon thawed the masses, and the big gravel heaps were ready for sluicing. This is now the general practice; and the change started the decline of the famous Yukon settlements of Forty Mile and Cudahy which was completed by the stampede to the Klondike. The miners remained at their claims, away from the settlements on the Yukon and safe from the allurements of the gambling den and saloon.

It is believed that the earliest reference to gold in the Yukon region was that of Mr. F. Whymper, who wrote in 1869: "It is worthy of mention that minute specks of gold have been found by some of the Hudson Bay Company's men in the Yukon, but not in quantities to warrant a rush to the locality." Not till 1881 was gold known to exist there in paying quantities. Then a few miners braved the terrors of Chilkoot Pass, drifted down the western head streams of the Yukon, and, nearing the great river, found good pay dirt on the bars where the creeks joined the larger streams. Other miners followed the pioneers, and at last the Yukon itself was reached, and in 1886 four men panned out $6,000 in thirty days on the Stewart tributary. The following year over three hundred men were on the Yukon, most of them on Forty Mile River, where they took out over $100,000 in the three summer months. Still there was no rush to the Yukon. The difficulties of getting there were too great, the hardships were too formidable, and most miners thought the returns were not large enough to pay for it all. There has never been a Yukon stampede till the Klondike excitement began; and when G. W. Cormack sent word to Forty Mile of his great discovery, just about a year ago, there were less than one thousand men in the entire gold-field, from the Hootalinqua River down the Yukon to Circle City.

A very important fact about most Yukon placers, thus far, is that they have been worked out in a comparatively short time. Forty Mile River has yielded about $500,000, but the miners said, last year, that all the most accessible bars had been exhausted. There are, however, numerous bench and bank bars, timbered and frozen, known to be rich, but not yet touched because hydraulic mining is required. The men who took out $6,000 in a month on Cassier bar, in 1886, did not find over $10 a day on the same bar in 1887. This is the history of the Yukon workings. But very rich and widely distributed discoveries were made last year and in 1895, and they would be famous now if the Klondike finds had not dwarfed them. The greatness of this placer region depends not so much upon the Klondike discoveries, surpassing as they are, but upon the probability, amounting almost to a certainty, that there are many hundreds of rich placers which will add enormously to the world's wealth in gold, as they are gradually revealed. A few words upon the general aspects of the upper Yukon territory will show upon what basis this prospect rests.

The valley of the Yukon, all through this placer region, is deeply cut in an elevated, undulating plateau on which rest many ranges of low and partly barren hills, without a single well-defined mountain range crossing the district. As a rule the river washes the base of these hills, which rise from five hundred to fifteen hundred feet above it, and there are long stretches of steep bluff directly walling in the river, affording many picturesque and even grand

views. Here and there important tributaries enter the river, some of them two hundred miles or more in length, their sources being far west in Alaska, or east in Canada. These tributaries are fed by a great number of small streams and creeks, following tortuous courses among the hills, the whole comprising a vast network of waterways that have dug deep gulches. Where they reach the larger streams, bars have been formed of the detritus brought down the gulches they have dug; and above these bars, along the steep sides of the gulches or of the rivers to which the creeks are tributary, are often found parts of the bars formed before the water system had cut its way down to its present level.

It is in these bars and stream beds that the placer gold is found. Only a very small part of them has yet been worked, and in fact the most of this rugged region, with its intricate hydrographic system, has not yet been explored. Prospecting is very difficult. These tributary streams are a long succession of cañons, whirlpools, and rapids, and not only a thirst for gold, but a high degree of skill and courage as well, are required for their exploration. Prospecting must proceed slowly. Thus far it has been confined almost entirely to the larger and most accessible streams. But it is reasonable to draw inferences from what is already known as to what will be found under similar conditions. Within the past two years prospects not yet opened up, of the highest promise, have been discovered, many miles from the Yukon, both on the Alaskan and Canadian sides. Rivers like the Stewart, that had been abandoned, after two or three placers were worked out, are being reoccupied, and the placers higher up the streams are found to be equally promising. Most of the work has been confined to a comparatively narrow segment on both sides of the Yukon, and now begins the slow work of exploration and exploitation far east and west of the scene of the past ten years' activity. Mr. Ogilvie, Dr. Dawson, and Mr. McConnell, of the Canadian Land and Geological Survey, have given the most study, in a scientific sense, to this region. From the data obtained, Dr. Dawson expresses the view that gold-bearing gravels may be found in the bed of every stream, and that the area of this auriferous region, in Canadian territory alone, is scores of thousands of square miles. It is not wise to invest large sums of money upon the basis merely of inference, but there is slight room for doubt that this placer region is both rich and extensive and that a goodly part of it is tucked away in our own territory of Alaska.

There will be a large field, too, for the other form of mining, that requires quartz crushers. Nature deposited gold in veins, usually of quartz, and it is only when the forces that wear down the surface of the earth break up the comparatively superficial parts of these veins and ledges, and crumble the pieces of rock as they are rolled and tumbled in the beds of creeks and torrents, that the gold is able to escape, is distributed through the gravel and sand, and gradually works down to the bed rock. This is placer gold, and the fact that it exists points to a strong probability that the ledges from which all this mass of coarse and fine gold grains were derived still exist, in part at least, and not far away. They are being found, in fact, and our Geological Survey expedition last year traced a part of these gold-bearing rocks, and found them to extend in a broad belt running northwest into Alaska from Canadian territory. Mr. Ogilvie and others are reporting the discovery of quartz veins in other parts of the Yukon district. These discoveries will justify the importation of quartz-mining machinery, and this other phase of the industry will probably give value to the upper Yukon region long after the placers which have established its fame have been exhausted.

TWO MONTHS' OUTING ON A FARM.

BY THEODORE L. FLOOD.

DRIVEWAY LEADING TO VERNON HALL.

IN Vernon Valley, which is only three miles long and one mile wide, we cast our lot for a two months' summer outing. Our party consisted of seven people: Dr. Wells, a scientist, Mr. Gregory, a manufacturer, the editor of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, our wives, and Miss Marie, a bright little girl of seven summers. We located near the head of the valley, in Vernon Hall, which proved to be a most delightful habitation for any company, large or small, cheerful or morose. A beautiful piece of country surrounds Vernon Hall. There are no mountains, but the hills rise to about the point where, if they had not stopped, they would have become mountains. The country is rich in apple orchards, maple-sugar camps, and the best of all drinks, pure spring-water. This last may be had by simply tapping the earth at almost any place. The woods on the summit of the hills serve as a green fringe to the whole valley during the summer months. The farmhouses are two-story buildings of modern architectural design, and neatly painted. They are set back from the public highway, with a driveway leading to them, which assures retirement and secures for the occupants quiet and rest. A small stream of never-failing water runs down the valley and empties into French Creek and finally into the Alleghany River.

FRONT VIEW OF VERNON HALL.

SOUTH ENTRANCE TO VERNON HALL.

No telegraph or telephone line is seen in Vernon Valley; no electric-car track or steam railway stretches through it. It is free from the disturbances of modern civilization and the inhabitants seem willing that capital shall never desecrate their soil with these improvements. The horse and wagon, or the horse and carriage, the saddle horse, and the bicycle satisfy the ambition of the people for means of travel. The railway station, the telephone and telegraph offices are only three miles—twenty minutes—away on a good level road.

Vernon Hall is an ideal domicile for its purpose. It is a plain one-story building with a hall twenty-five feet wide and thirty-six feet long. This is made after the fashion of an old English hall, with a fireplace at the center of the room that will take a yule log four feet long. A door at one end of the room opens into a hall which introduces one to two reception-rooms, while a door at the other end opens into another hall leading to the sleeping apartments. A door beside the fireplace leads to the kitchen, and double doors open onto the veranda. The room is finished in natural wood—Georgia pine—up to the rafters. This hall is the music-room, sitting-room, library, reading-room, and dining-room, and the young folks think that the violin with piano accompaniment never sounds so well anywhere else. The meals are served on a round table which fills considerable space, and the guests can always touch elbows, which means that the table is always full.

The veranda is a surprise when you first look upon it. It is fourteen feet wide by sixty-four feet long, and here settees, rocking-chairs, and hammocks tend to make life comfortable. This great porch is adorned with seven columns after the colonial design. Here one may sit and see the toilers on eight different farms up and down the valley, and witness the grazing of horses, cattle, and sheep on the hills far and near. The view is one of the most beautiful to be found in northwestern Pennsylvania.

When there is a wheel-meet or corn-roast at Vernon Hall, or when the Round Table, a club of fifty gentlemen, comes from the city, a variety of entertainment is offered, ranging in purpose and dignity from the scholarly literary program on weighty scientific matters to the mirth-provoking improvizations of amateur comedians, costumed from Vernon Hall's ample, if crude, stage supplies. Music lovers find at their service

a piano, a music-box, an accordion, an Italian hand-organ (which last instrument some musicians say sounds better in the country than when its strains are confined by the walls of city buildings), and many another less esteemed but not less vocal appliance. On Sunday evening an informal concert is sometimes given, the repertoire including songs of the earlier and later times, to the best sacred music in vogue, selections from the church hymnology, and melodies of the jubilee singers, and every performer uses his or her full volume of voice, while doors and French windows are wide open, with never a thought that the neighbors will be disturbed. And this suggests one of the advantages of country life: a man is at liberty to use his own house for an evening's entertainment, however noisy, as he hardly feels justified in doing in a packed town or city, where neighbors next door and across the street may be annoyed.

Horseback riding is a favorite exercise with some persons at Vernon Hall. Since the bicycle has become popular, an occasional race between a man in the saddle and a company of bicyclists over the country for eight or ten miles is a common outing. A favorite volume at Vernon Hall is "Horses, Saddles, and Bridles," by Major Carter of the United States cavalry. This book is full of information about the horse, from the tips of his ears to the calks on his shoes, and, though primarily designed for the cavalry, it will give one a complete knowledge of the physiology of the horse and will aid one to understand the philosophy of his nature and instincts. After reading this volume we decided that because we had all grown so willing to sit at our ease in a carriage or on a rubber-tired wheel, and disliked the violent motion of riding horseback, we had been avoiding one of the best exercises a man can take, and we agreed that in our company neither electricity, steam, nor the bicycle should supersede that noble animal the horse.

The birds about Vernon Hall are numerous and interesting. It was a fascinating study for our party to watch a pair of woodpeckers burrowing into the trunk of a maple tree thirty feet from the ground to make a nest. Here they set up housekeeping, and everything was going pleasantly, when about five o'clock one afternoon Dr. Wells and I observed a red squirrel running up the tree to the woodpeckers' nest. As the birds were away, he went in. Presently he put his head out of the nest and in his fore paws he held an egg. There

INTERIOR VIEW OF VERNON HALL.

READY FOR A DRIVE.

he perched, chipped off pieces of the egg-shell, ate the contents, and let the broken shell drop to the ground, where Marie sorrowfully picked it up. The squirrel went back as if he were looking for another egg, but seeming to be unsuccessful in his search he came out and went away. We watched the effect of this depredation on the woodpeckers. It made one of them very despondent. She seemed not to enjoy soaring in the air or flying from tree to tree, while her mate tried to encourage and cheer her, but without avail. The robbery made such an impression upon Mrs. Wells and the other ladies that we determined to locate the little marauder and bring him to justice if his pillaging continued. We discovered that he had his home about an eighth of a mile away in a wood, and were on the watch for him the next evening at about the hour of his first appearance. He came running down the fences from the direction of the wood, making directly for the woodpeckers' nest again for more provisions. In brief council the squirrel's doom was sealed, and Dr. Wells with a shot-gun brought him to the ground. Marie, who had been interested in the case from the beginning,

ON THE TERRACE AT VERNON HALL.

picked up the dead body of the squirrel and took it over to the base of the tree in which the woodpeckers were located, saying, "I want this squirrel to lie here until to-morrow, so the little birds will know that their enemy is dead and won't be troubled about their eggs and their home any more."

Our attention was called soon after this to a humming-bird, which was darting in and out among the trumpet-honeysuckle blossoms on the porch. Dr. Wells remarked: "I presume most people think that the humming-bird gets honey out of flowers when he puts his bill into them, but this is a mistake. There are insects in the flower getting the honey, and the humming-bird catches the insects and eats them."

Between the vine which attracted the humming-bird and the tree where the woodpeckers had their nest, a chipmunk made his residence and became a very friendly neighbor. He had burrowed into a terrace in front of the porch and went in and out with as much regularity and self-possession as if he owned the plantation. Every morning and evening Marie would carry hickory-nuts and butternuts and leave them near the entrance to the chipmunk's home, and the little fellow would capture all of the provisions and disappear with them, storing them up, I suppose, for his winter supply. We insisted to Marie that she would make the chipmunk lazy—that he would think the world was laying its riches at his feet and so would not work; but the little maid took too great delight in playing the part of a bountiful provider to think of discipline.

A WHEEL-MEET AT VERNON HALL.

It was our aim at Vernon Hall to encourage the robins, the lettuce birds, and the other common species to gather about and build their nests, and to promote this we secured certain musical instruments which imitate the calls of birds. When these were employed our little feathered

friends would reply from the surrounding trees, and we could get up a bird concert on short notice on that spacious lawn.

For a few years it was the custom at the Hall to celebrate the Fourth of July with a grand fusillade of fire-crackers, but we learned that the noise frightened the birds and squirrels away, and since then the day has been observed by putting up colored balloons and burning colored fires at night, leaving the noisy fire-crackers entirely out of the program. And the birds show their appreciation by staying through their season and giving us their sweet songs.

to the house and, with the use of yeast and other ingredients, made into bread. Marie listened with rapt attention, and then said soberly, "But how could I know all that when I live in the city and never saw wheat before?" And she decided that living in the country was better than going to school, since she learned things there that she did not learn at school.

A few days later she seemed wild with desire for further information, and called, "Mrs. Gregory, come and tell me about the cows. What are they driving them to the barn for?" Mrs. Gregory took her to

ADELLA. LUCY. MARIE.

MARIE AND HER VISITORS FEEDING THE DUCKS.

Marie found other subjects of instruction besides the birds and squirrels. Dr. Wells took her on his back into a wheat-field when the grain was just ripe. They brought back a little sheaf of wheat and inquiry was made of the child, "Do you know anything about bread?" She said, "I know when it is good." "But do you know where bread comes from?" and at that she shook her head. Then Dr. Wells explained how the wheat that she had just seen would be cut, taken into the barn, and thrashed, then the wheat kernels would be removed from the chaff and taken to the mill and ground into flour, then the flour would be brought

watch the men milking. "Tell me all about it," Marie entreated. "This milk will make cream, butter, and cheese," Mrs. Gregory said. "Will it make ice cream?" asked the child. "Yes," replied Mrs. Gregory. Marie was delighted with this new knowledge, perceiving that there is a very close connection between the cows and the dinner-table.

Mrs. Wells, hearing this dialogue, told the following anecdote: "Two fresh-air boys visited a farmhouse near here and went into the field to see a man dig potatoes. At the dinner-table they were asked if they would be served with potatoes, and stoutly

A GROUP OF JERSEYS.

declined. After dinner the lady of the house questioned them as to why they did not eat the vegetable, and obtained this reply: 'When we are at home in the city we eat potatoes that we buy in the store, but we won't eat your potatoes because you dig them out of the ground.'"

As in other rural localities, so here many of the homes are beautified by blossoming plants—roses, often in profusion, and many varieties of the hardier annuals and perennials. It is true that to most farmers the constant delving in the soil for more practical purposes renders flower culture anything but a novelty and a pastime, even had they leisure for such occupations, and doubtless it is most frequently the busy hands of the wives and daughters that train the morning-glories in an airy screen about the back porch and coax the sweet peas into a mass of blooming fragrance; but, whoever does the work, the result is always a cheering symbol of aspiration.

At Vernon Hall not only are there cultivated flowers in abundance, from the choicest roses, through the long list of garden favorites—the peony, fleur-de-lis, jonquil,

UNLOADING HAY.

A FISHING PARTY.

nasturtium, bachelor's-button, columbine, phlox, verbena, gladiolus, and many another —to the more rugged bloomers, such as the syringa, deutzia, and strawberry shrub, but the native flora also is not unappreciated, and buttercups, daisies, and bouncing-bet proffer their humble charms from the outskirts of the lawn, while great jars of wild sunflowers and goldenrod stand by the vine-festooned pillars of the porch, and vases of wild roses, ferns, and feathery Spiræa adorn the mantel or lend their grace to the dining-table.

In this country the hay and grain harvest is not large, because every farm is small and of necessity the harvest is limited. From twenty-five to fifty tons of hay is a strong yield for any one farm, and from seventy-five to one hundred bushels of wheat and from three to seven hundred bushels of oats are called good crops. The tendency is toward working small farms and stimulating the soil for each crop, with the belief that one acre of land scientifically and industriously farmed will produce more than three when carelessly worked. The crops are just bulky enough to require three horses and three men to handle them promptly and well. In some cases two men are sufficient, with the aid of modern machinery.

This is where our interest was heightened. We were familiar with the old-time harvests, but now that inventions and patents have put a variety of labor-saving machines into the hands of the workmen the processes are greatly changed. In this valley forty years ago the grass was cut with a scythe, four or five men in a row bending their backs to the work and with regular step keeping up a rhythmical stroke. It was beautiful to look upon, but it was hard work for the mowers. Now a mowing-machine, drawn by a span of horses and with a seat occupied by the driver, cuts more grass in a forenoon than five men could with scythes. The once familiar sight of several men raking hay with old-fashioned hand rakes has been superseded by the hayrake drawn by two horses, with the driver sitting at ease upon the rake, and sometimes protected from the sun by an umbrella fastened to the machine. The modern hay-loader places the hay upon the wagon more quickly than two men can pitch it with forks. When the wagon is driven into the barn the hay is unloaded by one man, who uses an ingenious hay-fork attached to block and tackle, which is operated by a horse. This takes the place of the man who used to lift the load by forkfuls into the mow. It is a pleasing sight to one who was familiar with the old-time fork and the method of throwing back hay into a long mow, and it all seems so simple that one can hardly believe it is not magic. The old wheat cradle swung by a muscular man played an important part in cutting the crops of wheat, oats, and rye

in days of yore. It required a skilful stroke with a cradle to cut a wide, clean swath. Now the reaper, built on scientific principles, fells a crop and leaves a field as though it were shaved. It is drawn by two or three horses, driven by a man comfortably seated on the machine, and is one of the marvels of this age. This reaper cuts the grain, forms it into sheaves, binds it with cord, and drops the sheaves in bunches ready to be shocked. It is to the farmer what the printing-press is to the publishing house and the steam-engine to the railway train and ocean steamer. In the olden days I have seen boys riding horses all day on a barn floor to tramp out the grain from the chaff and straw. Then the flail came and made music to good time. Two men would each give an alternate stroke to separate the grain from the stalk. I have driven five horses round a circle all day to furnish power to run the thrashing-machine, but now the thrashing-machine is propelled by a steam-engine. The proprietor of the engine and thrasher drives his machines from farm to farm on the public highway by steam power, reminding one that the farmer has already introduced the horseless carriage. When one thinks of the revolution that has been made in the methods and machinery for harvesting and garnering, it seems as though farming were made easy, as it certainly has been made attractive and interesting to the observer.

The silo is a popular institution in this region. It is a large box-like frame building, thirty-five feet high and about fifteen feet square. It is weather-boarded, sealed tight, and has a cemented floor. This is the modern building for putting up a feed for cattle known as ensilage. The corn composing this feed is not raised in hills, but is sowed in rows, and grows nine or ten feet high, with a thick stalk. It is cut green, down near the roots, hauled into the barn, and run through a machine that cuts the stalk, ears, and leaves into pieces about one or two inches long. These are run to the top of the silo in a carrier, which goes up and down by machinery, and are emptied automatically into the silo. This chopped corn is then spread around and tramped down by

AT THE FISH-POND.

A "STRAW RIDE" AT VERNON HALL.

one or two men, and it has now become ensilage. When the silo is filled it is covered with boards and a weight is put upon it. This is a splendid arrangement for satisfying a herd with feed that is fresh and conducive to both health and good keeping, and to the farmer it is an advantage in insuring him and his customers fresh butter and milk during the winter months. Ensilage is regarded as the cheapest and most economical feed that can be produced. It is estimated that six acres will yield enough corn to keep twenty cows where the winter is five months long.

Although in these parts not so many men are employed on the farms with machinery as formerly, yet more land is cultivated. There are more farmhouses, more people to the square mile, and more men own their farms. The tendency seems to be that every man shall own the farm he works. The renting of farms or working them on shares is rare in Vernon Valley. Where a farm of from three hundred to five hundred acres was owned by one man threescore years ago, now one man works a farm of one hundred or one hundred and twenty-five acres, and in this locality every landowner is contented with a farm of this size.

The farmer who owns one hundred acres of land and knows how to manage it to preserve the chemistry of the soil so that the land will generate an abundant harvest can support himself and family comfortably and prosperously. He may secure his own bread, corn, meat, milk, cream, butter, and cheese, all of the vegetables and luxuries, such as small fruits, cherries, and apples, and then there is nothing left to buy except a few groceries; and at the present low prices this brings the expenses of the table down to the minimum. The taxes on such property will be less than $40 per year in Vernon Valley.

One day my friend Dr. Wells, dressed in a brand-new suit of clothes, rode up to Vernon Hall and seated himself in a comfort-

able rocking chair. I inquired "What did that suit of clothes cost?" He replied, "I paid $5 for it this morning. It is an outing suit and will answer every purpose for my uses in this neighborhood," which was literally true.

In addition to the cheapness of groceries and clothes it must be taken into account that farming implements never cost so little money as now, while they save manual labor and do just as good work as the old-fashioned tools. It does seem that the farmer's millennium has begun to come.

On the farm next to Vernon Hall there is a fish-pond which is fed by springs. We are told that there, in the season, a good fisherman can in ten minutes catch ten pounds of bass. The proprietor estimates that this pond is worth to his place from $700 to $1,000 per year. He has an ice-house, which the fish-pond enables him to fill every winter with an excellent quality of ice. With this ice and cream from his herd he may have ice-cream the summer through, together with ice-water, iced lemonade, and iced tea. He supplies his neighbors to some extent with ice, since the ice carts from the city do not drive to this distance in the suburbs. The pond is constructed with earth embankments, is kept at high tide, and has a natural outlet. It is a thing of beauty as well as of utility.

I found to my surprise that five farmers near Vernon Hall run milk carts to the city, three miles away, and that each man clears from $400 to $500 a year on his cart.

Mr. Gregory returned from a tour awheel one evening, threw himself into a hammock, and said: "Here is an item. About ten miles to the west I called on a farmer whose thrifty wife was keeping summer boarders. She said a gentleman and his wife from Pittsburg desired to get into the country—to look on the green fields, to ramble in the woods, inhale the country air, and see the farmers at their summer work. The gentleman asked the farmer's wife what she would charge for board per week. She replied: 'For room and board for one person, $3.50, or $7 a week for two.' Her terms were accepted and the people came. They both own bicycles and can go on their wheels to the center of the nearest town in twenty minutes and back again in twenty minutes; thus they really enjoy city life and yet are living in the country."

These are some of the methods employed by the farmers to increase their exchequer and bring prosperity.

It is surprising, however, that in this large agricultural region, only three miles from a population of ten thousand people, the farmer can make no money out of raising either poultry or cattle for the local market, since he must compete with the beef imported from the ranches in the west. Swift's meats are freighted five hundred miles from Chicago into the city and

PRINCE DON OUT FOR A CANTER.

sold to the butchers, who retail them to the people in wagons which bear Swift's name on the sides. The retail price of beef is about sixteen cents per pound, while the wholesale price is about four cents, and yet the retail butchers do not grow rich.

The life we have described does not prove detrimental to the personal appearance of the Vernon Valley farmer. The men, women, and children look thrifty. They appear to be well fed and well clothed; they live in good houses that are tastefully painted and well furnished. They drive good horses, hitched to respectable looking wagons or up-to-date carriages. They educate their children, have no mortgages on their farms, and seem to live prosperous lives.

The son of a neighboring farmer, out from New York on a vacation, called on me, and in the course of our conversation remarked that he envied the farmer. I asked him his reasons, and he replied as follows:

"Well, on a farm you have plenty to live on. In the fall you put from fifty to one hundred bushels of apples in the cellar, and about fifty bushels of potatoes. You have a hundred bushels of wheat in the bin for bread and a couple of hundred bushels of corn from which to make corn bread. You have turnips, beets, onions, cabbage, and dear knows what all, and everything is put up to last the family the whole winter. You have a flock of turkeys, and chickens and ducks, and you have some fattened cattle that you can use for meat; besides your cows furnish you a good supply of milk and cream, butter and cheese. You have an abundance of everything; in fact, you have provender to sell. But a poor bookkeeper in New York must live from hand to mouth. I buy every mouthful we eat, at market or at the fruit-store, and a good part of the money I spend goes to the commission merchants. The balance of my salary I pay to the storekeepers to dress my wife and myself, that we may keep pace with our set in society, and at the end of the year I don't have a red cent left. I'll be blest if I don't believe I have made a mistake in life by going to the city. If I had stayed here and struck these times, with the bicycle and horses to go to town, I would be a great deal better off. I wish I had done as my brother Dan did, stayed on a farm and saved something for a rainy day. I believe that ultimately a good many city fellows must come back to the farm to get a living."

INDIVIDUALISM.*

BY PRESIDENT J. F. GOUCHER.

OF WOMAN'S COLLEGE, BALTIMORE, MD.

MAN is the objective, beneficiary, and gauge of all true progress. Everything is valued by its relation to him. Civilization is not to be measured by its direct ministry to the lower orders of animal life. It has compelled multitudes of them to change their habitat and caused not a few to become extinct. Governments are adjudged to have done well in regard to them if they have so legislated that seals, fish, and game may not be wantonly destroyed, and no unseemly cruelty may go unpunished. Steam has not improved the condition of the quadruped. The fowls of the air are not increased in number, nor are they of greater importance because of the multiplication of electrical appliances. Poetry and music have not made more cheerful the call of the katydid, nor less plaintive the cricket's chirp. If horses have been bred to greater speed, it is that they may serve the rider or the backer. If strains of cattle have been improved, it is for the beef, or milk, or butter they may yield. Humanity alone is enlarged and enriched by the arts and sciences, commerce and literatures in all ages.

* The Recognition Day address delivered before the C. L. S. C. Class of 1897 in the Amphitheater at Chautauqua, N. Y., on August 18, 1897.

All the cities of the world, with their varied, intricate, and expensive adjustments and accumulations, exist to serve human ends. The factories, with their furnaces, engines, machines, crude material, and finished product; the libraries, containing books and manuscripts written in various languages, and discoursing upon all subjects; the museums, gathered from every land and every sea, illustrating all the ologies of every age; and the appliances for illumination, sanitation, and rapid transit of material, persons, or thought would be inert matter, rusting and useless, in the absence of man. Turn in the beasts of field and forest, and they would find their condition less congenial than in desert or wilderness. Gather together the birds and insects from every clime, and they would not regard the expensive architecture, except as offering convenient supports for their simple nests. Submerge all beneath the waters, and the denizens of the deep might swim through the disintegrating walls, but no one of them would change the structure of its shell or its habits of living. But let man appear, and lo, the wheels turn, power is transmitted, and material is transmuted into forms of beauty and utility. The libraries are perennial fountains of fact and suggestion; the museums are invaluable for illustration and instruction; the appliances are eager and swift to serve; all recognize and wait upon their lord. Man alone can make and drive a nail. He only can command the services of fire. To him alone will the subtle forces and complicated forms of nature divulge the secrets of their power, or do with dignified restraint organized service.

The multiplication of man's resources and the enlargement of man's power is the outcome and gauge of all conditions and influences. Even deprivations stimulate his efforts; difficulties arouse his dormant powers; opposition compels activity, while success develops enterprise. Competition and cooperation work along different paths toward this common result. Their methods are diverse: the one is wasteful and the other economical of resources, but in the one case, as in the other, humanity is the ultimate beneficiary.

Selfishness of every form is under compulsion to render some kind of ministry. It gives employment to many agents, distributes to them the accumulation of its greed, and must cater to, or lose the patrons from whom it expects its profit. The skilful angler, wading along the mountain stream, does not display more cunning or ingenuity in trying to make his cruel hook appear like the seasonable fly "on thoughtless pleasure bent" than the vender of quack nostrums or the Shylock of modern society in appealing to this universal right to be served. The demagogue, according to his own statement, always seeks the public good; but nobody can deceive everybody always, and this constitutional and inalienable human right to be served is continually assertive.

However large or swift or turbid may be the eddies of social agitation, their ultimate outcome and calm flowing is on the advancing side of human progress. All nations, whether ancient or modern, have one thing in common, namely, a commission to serve the race. Each stands for an idea. In the earlier ages these ideas were less inclusive and more easily defined, but each is a factor, and has its value in solving the problems of the larger humanity. In the broader thinking and deeper philosophy, none has entirely failed. The wisest conclusions are oftentimes approached by a process of exclusion. Freedom of will necessitates argument, experiment, illustration. Instruction is construction. No nation exhausts its influence in the age in which it has its concrete form. Chaldea, Egypt, Greece, Rome, Israel are living forces in the civilization of to-day, and the nations and forces which aided or modified their development live because they live. Take away from any generation or individual that which has been inherited from the past, and the wise would become foolish, the learned ignorant, the skilful clumsy, and the wealthy poor. History records apparent recessions in the movements of humanity, and nations which had achieved greatness and promised continuance have crumbled away or been destroyed; but no such disaster has occurred

until after human rights had been subordinated to greed, pleasure, or cruelty.

No reform faces the setting sun. Till wrongs are righted conflict is irrepressible. Permanent peace cannot exist where there is oppression. The size of the army is not the most important factor in determining victory. The great decisive battles of the world, when judged in the light of their results, have always been won for humanity. The little band of devoted Greeks at Marathon (B. C. 490), possessing superior equipment, organization, personality, defeated the Persians, who outnumbered them ten to one, and "secured for mankind the intellectual treasures of Athens, the growth of free institutions, the liberal enlightenment of the western world, and the gradual ascendance for many ages of the great principles of European civilization." The courage and endurance of a citizen soldiery at Metaurus (B. C. 207) defeated the mercenaries, whose trade was war, and made Rome with her high regard for constitutional rights the mistress of the world. The Saracens were compelled to flee from Tours (A. D. 732), leaving the European undisputed master of the field, and Christendom was rescued from the shackles of the Koran.

The battle of Hastings introduced a large infusion of vigorous men, with a genius for improvement, which so modified the Briton's character that "England owes her liberties to having been conquered by the Normans." The great tribal movements of the Anglo-Indian, Teutonic, and other races threatened at times to devastate whole nations, but, like the receding springtime floods of our western rivers, they enriched with an invigorating deposit the lands they overran. The crusades, which seemed so wasteful of life and treasure, secured the organized administration of law and the enlargement of citizenship. The capture of Constantinople by the "unspeakable Turk" in 1453 was an important factor in that great impetus to the study of Greek literature which recivilized the world. The defeat of the Spanish Armada (1588) prevented Philip, "the sternest bigot of his age," from establishing a universal empire, extirpating freedom of thought, the exercise of individual conscience, and Protestantism.

Blenheim and Waterloo saved the world from a Latin civilization, French domination, and despotic bondage. England's petulance with her American colonies compelled the organization of the United States and made possible humanity's greatest experiment in self-government. Saratoga secured our recognition by the nations of Europe, and Gettysburg demonstrated the vigor and assured the perpetuity of the republic. The French Revolution, with its gross extravagances, was a reckless protest, like that of Samson at the feast of Dagon, against irrational and dehumanizing assumptions, but it secured a strategic point in the battle for the rights of men and hastened the dawn of European regeneration. Always and everywhere absolute monarchies, by evolution or revolution, make way for constitutional governments, for "the divine right of kings" is "not to be ministered unto, but to minister."

There is a compulsion also governing the physical forces, conditioning their enlargement of activity upon the service they render humanity. Heat, light, electricity, chemical action and reaction, gravitation, steam, all mechanical appliances, every one of the great agencies by which man has widened the area of his influence over time, space, or matter, was regarded as a plaything, affording pastime to the curious, till its power to serve was demonstrated. Utility and enlargement of application wait upon each other. The employment of machinery, driven from a common center, and the growth of factories have differentiated labor and increased man's power of physical achievement a thousand fold. Concentration upon a single process or limited work has developed the specialist. By so far he is disqualified for general utility and is correspondingly dependent upon the cooperative labor of his fellows; but the result is, larger output and less waste of material for the producer, shorter hours and larger wage for the laborer, better and cheaper supplies for the consumer, and increase of domestic comforts

and interdependence or solidarity for the community. Humanity is better clothed because of the spinning-jenny, better fed because of the reaper and roller process of making flour, better housed because of the sawmill, better instructed because of the printing-press, and better governed because of the facilities for communication. As alchemy hinted at and helped forward the science of chemistry, and astrology preceded and was serviceable in the evolution of astronomy, so the competitive industry of a mercenary world has multiplied and made accessible the necessaries and comforts of human life.

Some of the most serious evils threatening society are incident to congested conditions at the centers of its large cities. The discussion of these crime-breeding tumors baffled all known resources till facilities for rapid transit and inexpensive communication were developed by the economic application of electricity. This brought to multitudes who longed for release from the restrictions and enforced associations of flat and tenement-house the possibilities of suburban residence. Homes, healthy, attractive, embowered in shrubbery or surrounded by greensward, are rapidly multiplying, and the rental of tenement-house property and the number of juvenile criminals are decreasing as family life and childhood possibilities are increasing.

The cottage contains conveniences and luxuries unknown to the palaces of former times. The floor of the great hall in which Queen Elizabeth met her Parliament was covered with hay and rushes, without the suggestion of carpet or rugs. The children of peasants are better educated to-day than the barons and nobles were in early times. Of the twenty-six barons who signed the Magna Charta, only three could write their names. The luxuries of one generation become the necessities of the next; the prerogatives, privileges, and secrets which belonged to the few yesterday are the common property of the many to-day.

Through the ages one unceasing purpose runs,
And the thoughts of men are widened by the process of the suns.

The blanket has given way to the sleeved coat, the bow and sling to the rifle, the scalping-knife to the ambulance, incantations to the laboratory, the wigwam to the house with separate rooms, chimney, windows, and doors; the crude picture-writing, with its few meager ideas, has been superseded by the alphabet and varied literatures; agriculture has become a science and navigation an art; slavery has been abolished, and the conditions of famine, pestilence, and war greatly ameliorated. The United States has been a party in one way or another to more than fourscore arbitrations, and the great treaty-making powers are discussing the principles of permanent international arbitration. International law has recognized existence, and is as binding as the civil code. The remote parts of the earth are next-door neighbor to the Christian nations, and the power of right is supplanting the influence of wealth and diplomacy, as these superseded the force of arms. As a rule the impure and criminal classes rarely perpetuate their kind beyond the second or third generation, and the average duration of human life is gradually increasing in the most Christian nations. All forces, all influences, all changes are factors, directly or indirectly, in the problem, and all things work together for the evolution of the largest humanity.

But humanity is not an entity; it is the aggregate of the units composing it. The status of the citizen determines civilization. Organization is not the ultimate end of progress; it is only a means to progress. Governments are by the people and for the people. The extensive and expensive systems of registration and transfer, the codes and pandects of every civilized state, are to protect the individual. In him every possibility, purpose, and process of progress ultimately focuses.

Gravitation, chemical affinity, electricity, all the great physical forces work atomically. They know nothing of masses as such. They work upon each atom uniformly and upon aggregates of atoms proportionately. So with the moral, intellectual, and social forces, it is impossible to elevate, educate

or reform men in the mass. This must be done, if at all, as they are born, fed, and clothed—individually. No community is moved by great principles except as the individuals composing it accept them and are moved by them.

The progress of humanity is gauged by the progress of individualism. Slavery has given way to citizenship, and men plead not for special privileges but demand their common rights. Every man, woman, and child rejoices in the possession of a personal name, and the law protects him in its use. Man and woman are recognized as having natures diverse in functions—incapable of being substituted the one for the other, but supplemental and of equal worth. She is honored as the heart of the home of which he is the head. Childhood rights receive protection from even parental authority, and the father may no longer slay his child nor sell him into slavery.

The ordeals so long enforced by superstition have been superseded by the investigation as to law and facts by a jury of peers. Facilities for acquiring and transferring real estate have been multiplied and possession of personal property is assured. Protection to life, limb, and the pursuit of happiness, freedom of thought, the exercise of conscience, equality before the law, exemption from taxation without representation, and the secrecy of the ballot are guaranteed. Provision for universal education, systematic care for dependents, and organized efforts to reform delinquents are made by legislative enactments and individual bounty. The busy used to affect idleness, but nowadays the idle affect to have employment, for it has came to pass that the privileged class consists of those who justify their living by their spirit of service. The Diamond Jubilee of that womanly woman the empress queen, which has just been celebrated with greater pomp and participated in by a greater part of the world than any other event in history, especially emphasized the fact that she had attained her exceptional position and influence because of her personal character rather than by royal prerogative. This is an age of personal service and personal serving, and men emulate each other in pursuit of the best. The least respected class in the community are those slaves of frivolity who work so hard to enjoy doing nothing. Men differ as the square of their ideas and as the cube of their personality. Nature abhors duplicates. They cannot be found in flower or leaf, sand-grain or snowflake, sound or color. All of a kind are alike but diverse. The superfluous man, if he can justly be called a man, is the creature who, with a humility more offensive than that of Uriah Heep, wastes the opportunities of living and apologizes for his existence by trying to be like some one else.

The world's progress waits upon strong commissioned individualism. "It is as necessary to set good precedents as to follow them." Nothing can be done without the man. It may take generations to develop him and an age may pass before one is found fitted to be a leader; but the great principles by whose influence human life must come to its largest realization and expression are constant and patiently bide incarnation and interpretation. The world's work is wrought by heroic men whose strong personality has been developed by some great informing principle to which they devoted themselves with unswerving loyalty. When a man and a great formative principle become inseparably identified it lifts him to the immortality of perpetual service.

Moses studied forty years at the court of Egypt and was instructed in all the wisdom of the Egyptians. There he had that individualization which is most clearly defined and most keenly felt. He was out of the sympathies of his associates, who proffered him honors while they sought to allure him from his convictions. "He chose rather to be evil entreated with the people of God than to enjoy the pleasures of sin for a season." In wilderness and desert seclusion for forty years he meditated upon and wrestled with the great spiritual verities, and "endured, as seeing him who is invisible." Then for forty years, criticized and unappreciated by contemporaries, he wrought, as he was commissioned, with sluggish, unresponsive natures, dulled and sensualized by

generations of slavery; but he was enabled to give the trend to that people, which for all these centuries, like the Gulf Stream in the midst of the ocean, has maintained a well-defined movement and individuality among the nations of the earth, modifying political and social relations, tempering justice, strengthening every virtue, and making possible the development of the highest type of individualism.

The noblest men of all ages, those who have thought and wrought most helpfully in the development of every nation, reform, or science, have been thus individualized by opposition or indifference; but they have kept solemn vigil with their high purpose, interpreting it with increasing clearness, till it has won for them enlargement and opportunity.

There is a civil-rights bill in the organic law of the physical, social, and spiritual world. This is manifest wherever we look. The great railroad corporations, which are assumed by many to be the embodiment of selfishness and proverbially devoid of soul, are servants of the individual. They bring the genius and experience of the past, the appliances and organized service of the present, the capital, skill, and cooperation of all time to serve each patron. You pay the preannounced price for transportation, seat yourself in the car, prearranged with every comfort, and schedules, connections, machinery, road-bed, arrangements of which you have no idea, processes which you can neither name nor understand, the millions of capital invested and the hundreds of thousands of employees whose energy and skill have been taxed in experimenting, engineering, constructing, equipping, and financiering, or whose labor in appointed relays is cooperating, are as thoroughly devoted to carrying out your desire and serving your purpose as though there were no other patron and no other motive.

So simple a thing as the breakfast you ate this morning, consisting of food which at market price cost from four to eleven cents, laid the whole world and in fact the entire universe under tribute, and may serve to illustrate how all forces and all ministries exist and labor for the individual. This will be readily manifest if you make an inventory of the items which entered into your frugal meal. There were the bread and butter, coffee and sugar, salt and pepper, meat and potatoes; the china from which and the knife, fork, and spoon with which you ate; the linen which covered and the glue and metal which held together the wooden table; the stove or range by which, with kerosene or coal, wood or gas, the food was cooked; the field on which the provision grew; the forests in which the timber was cut and the mines from which the minerals were dug; the furnaces and mills, the factories and machinery by which the crude material was changed and fashioned; the ships, railroads, and other methods of transportation and the varied resources and hundreds of thousands of employees which were taxed to construct, equip, and operate these; the maintenance of law by the governments of the earth that all civil rights should be respected; the investment of capital encouraged, and agriculture and mining, factories and commerce made profitable; the months or years through which the vegetable and animal products were being developed and the unnumbered generations by which the original stock has perpetuated itself to serve you as food to-day; the uncatalogued and unmeasured cosmic forces and countless ages by and through which the minerals were formed, deposited, and kept until your to-day's need required their use and the soils were made ready to grow the food which you consumed, and which has been consumed by the countless agents running back through unnumbered generations, whose successive labors were in some way connected with its preparation; the maintenance and operation through the ages of those complex and invisible forces of the universe which have held and moved the world in its orbit and upon its axis, securing with infinite exactness its diurnal changes and the succession of springtime and harvest—all these, and the great on-reaching, never-changing purpose by and for which all these consist, entered into the production of your breakfast.

Simple as it seemed, it was a banquet—representing the products of all time, served by the whole world, and provided through the ministries of the entire universe. The petition "Give us this day our daily bread" can only be addressed logically to the Lord of the universe, and is reasonable only because he has ordained that all things shall subsist for the individual. All things are for him. So far as he derives from them that which serves or becomes a part of his better self, all things are his.

Each form of life, physical, mental, and spiritual, has its aptitudes and desires, its type and purpose. Such is the relation of desire, activity, and environment that every life which works normally for the realization of its natural desires attains its largest possibilities, and its outcome is toward the realization of type and the accomplishment of purpose, for successful conflict is a condition of living.

The simplest cell is crowded and attacked by forces and other forms which would make it serve them, or clear it from the way of their activity. It cannot flee their presence. It is so everywhere. It cannot long exist upon the defensive; it must capture, assimilate, and develop that which will strengthen its personality, or make way for some other personality. It must conquer or succumb, assimilate or disintegrate. So with all forms of derived life. Personal activity, resulting in personal development, is the law of continuance. This is preeminently so of man. He is born without a character, a purpose, ideas, experience, or knowledge of any sort, into this busy world, which stops not an instant to welcome his advent. He is endowed with three interrelated but independent natures, each possessing the aptitudes and instincts peculiar to its life, with the many faculties of each dormant or undeveloped. The possibility of growth and the instinct of life in the midst of conflict compel activity, and it is required of him to develop his body, his mind, and his spirit—that is his personality—and become a man.

Although the world into which he is born seems to be preoccupied, it is the nursery, arena, and opportunity of individualism. It affords all necessary conditions for human exercise and growth from infancy to age. The babe's earliest desires and necessities invite it to distinguish between itself and its environment, to use its members, to focus its eyes, to develop its sense of hearing, to know its limitations, to assimilate somewhat of that which is not itself, to develop its personality and multiply its relations. All subsequent activity is but an enlargement of these earliest occupations, by which it may so use the variable and extrinsic in environment as to develop its permanent and intrinsic character.

Man's physical organism differs from other animal natures, in that it is the most helpless at birth, the most exacting in its demands, the most varied in its relations, and the most largely endowed with possibilities. The average man requires about two and one fourth pounds of solid food per day, or say eight hundred pounds per year. This must be transformed and adjusted, by his subtle and undefined vital action, into his living tissue. The effete matter must be eliminated as well as the new material assimilated, and all this within a limited range of temperature, for the maintenance of which the average man requires about two and one fourth pounds of oxygen and four and one fourth pounds of water per day, or, added to his food, say a ton and a half of solid matter per year. Think of the continuous substitution and removal of this amount of material, in infinitesimal particles, in the air, blood, and other conduits, in brain and nerve fiber, in muscle and bone, while the parts are in active use. What variety of processes, what ceaseless activity, what delicacy of adjustment, are necessary to retain the appearance and not endanger the personality! The mechanical work of developing and maintaining his physical organism brings the individual into competitive or cooperative relations with every law of chemistry and general physics and multitudes of existences ranging from the microbe to his fellow man. This requires vigilance and assertiveness, which must be applied to each atom in every part of his

entire body and during every moment of his physical life.

Assertiveness, selection, acquisitiveness, vigilance, and activity are as necessary to intellectual life. The factors and forces, relationships and results are more subtle, but as vital to mental growth and vigor. Who can classify or even catalogue that ever moving, ever varying troop of observations, memories, imaginations, thoughts, reflections, comparisons, and reasonings which, bidden or unbidden, enter one's mind in a single day? How they strengthen or enervate the mind! They are invisible and intangible to our grosser senses, but ponderable to our mental faculties, and the selection and use we make of them gradually develop our habits of mind and go far toward determining our character. The intellectual man is not more easily nor less expensively developed than the physical.

Important and real as these physical and mental processes are, they scarcely more than suggest the conditions for developing the spiritual or soul life. The conditions of this problem are more exact, the limitations of the factors more sharply drawn, and the results farther reaching. Passions and motives are as much subtler than thought as thought is than matter. There is no relation in which the soul can be placed in which there is not moral obligation. Our approach and relation to the simplest question develop or dissipate moral strength. The soul never has to seek adventure. Wherever there is a possibility of right, there is a possibility of wrong. The opposing forces are always engaged in conflict, and the arena is the human soul. The contest is uncompromising. Neither can withdraw till the person himself decides to stand with the one or the other. This ultimate decision is the prerogative of individualism, so sacredly guarded that Satan cannot and God will not violate it.

Each person has his opportunity—his supreme test. If he ranges himself on the side of his highest and best interests, he will be on the side of order, and chaos will become cosmos. The maintenance of this relationship is the continuance of the soul in life. The mental processes and physical activities will be subordinated to and will cooperate with the soul in the development of its functions, and in this subordination they will realize their highest functions and largest relations.

But how can opportunities be secured for the continual exercise, development, and investment of each faculty of the soul? How can it be brought to its best? Is the development of the soul element in individualism to be realized by processes which will force to its extreme limit and make complete the disintegrating condition of every man for himself and each man against every other man? Or as the physical and mental natures lead up toward and serve the soul, is its development so conditioned as to conserve and enrich humanity? If the former be true, the "survival of the fittest" is but a form of words, the true meaning of which is the destruction of all; but if the latter be true, in it is a guarantee of the universal brotherhood, in which greatness shall be measured by service, and the glory of the mightiest shall be his identification with the weakest.

In the development of individualism, humanity is necessarily divided into two classes. The first class includes the individual, and him only; the second class includes all the rest of humanity. This second class, that is, all the rest of humanity, is much more necessary to the individual than any one individual can possibly be to the rest of humanity; but to himself the individual is of the greatest importance, and, so far as the individual is concerned, all the rest of humanity exist for two purposes in particular: as a practice school for the individual, in which to discipline and develop all his virtues, and as opportunity for personal and guaranteed investments. When a soul is introduced into this world of law and relations it knows nothing of truth, courage, justice, mercy, love, or wisdom; but, turn where it will, it is confronted by conditions which invite and demand their constant exercise, and, as they are natural to soul life, their development is the condition of its living.

When we are confronted by misery which needs relief, suffering which requires sympathy, folly which should be reproved, or ignorance waiting for counsel, it is not an impertinent intrusion upon the serenity of our souls, but a high privilege offered us to realize larger life, giving opportunity for ministries which strengthen and enrich the giver more than they can the recipient. Man is so related that "it is more blessed to give than to receive." The miser is the miserable one. The lord, the loaf-ward, is the bread giver. Every one is born to be a lord, and everything cooperates with him who faithfully seeks to attain to his inheritance. The poorest has somewhat he can communicate, and never ending opportunities for ministries. Thus and thus only can he enlarge his personality; for not what man may do, but what he does, not what he gets, but what he uses, not what he gives, but what he shares with others, enriches him.

The strongest, most beautiful character you ever met differed not a whit from yourself in attainments at birth, neither has he had more varied opportunities for service than you, and if he exceeds you in wealth and beauty of character it is because he bought up opportunities for soul investment by more faithful service; for by ministry the soul thrives.

One of the saddest things in life is arrested development. There is nothing more interesting than a prattling child, with its big-eyed wonder, its tottering steps, its partially formed words, and its imperfect sentences, for they are natural to that stage of its development and reveal the expanding soul; but if after a score or twoscore years there has been no growth, a continuance of this childish prattle would be an unspeakable sorrow to those who loved it. Arrested development in the growth of individualism is not only cause for sorrow, but for shame also, for it is evidence of guilt. The possession of undeveloped faculties and possibilities, urgent demands upon every hand for their continual use, the certainty of growth and enlargement of relations, ministries, and joys through exercise, make failure to develop a crime, the evidence of which is written in meagerness of soul and the effects of which cannot be condoned. Yet the world is suffering from the non-use of wealth—not material wealth alone, but more particularly the wealth of virtue. It is easier to make money than to use it wisely. It is easier to get position and influence than to adorn the position one occupies and properly exert the influence one has. But all things are always working for the individual man, and the normal demands of his nature impel him to work more and more wisely for the development of his better self. The conditions of life compel to activity. His instinct for truth will not permit him to be content with known error. The demands of his social nature make for justice. His enrichment is through ministry, and helpfulness is the only patent to greatness. These forces, like the attraction of gravitation, are constant, and exert themselves to hold everything close to its true center, or cause everything which is unduly exalted to move toward its true center, and produce movements characterized by accelerated velocity.

Superstition and credulity are giving way to his scientific consciousness for facts. His historic consciousness insists that occupancy of the temple of fame is not necessarily proof of lawful possession. Pride and greed are no longer permitted to plume themselves and ride like knights of old seeking adventure, for utility and justice guard the highways, representing his social and economic instincts. His religious sensibilities and heart-hunger are leading him to rejoice in the fatherhood of God and the brotherhood of man, and to strive for joint heirship with Jesus Christ. He is reconstructing his philosophy, rewriting history, broadening his sympathies, and intensifying his life; and in the to-morrow, a to-morrow which is probably much nearer than many think, man will become loyal to truth in statement and relations, righteousness will fill the court, love will prevade all things, and the intensest individualism, developed and maintained by the broadest altruism, will give largest value to the unit factor of the largest humanity.

ARE WOMEN HURTING THE CHANCES OF MEN IN BUSINESS?

BY CARROLL D. WRIGHT, PH.D., LL.D.

HARRIET MARTINEAU, after her visit to America in 1840, related that she found but seven employments open to women—teaching, needlework, keeping boarders, textile industries, type-setting, bookbinding, and household service. Since that time the statistics of occupations of the people, as shown at the federal censuses, reveal the fact that there is hardly an occupation at the present time in which women are not found employed. Looking at the general classification of occupations of all persons ten years of age and over in the United States in 1890, the only vacant lines—those where women are not given at all—are for officers of the United States army and navy and for sailors and marines. This does not mean that women are to be found in every subdivision of an occupation under the general classification.

To answer the query at the head of this article not only the general statistics of occupations but also specific callings should be considered. The following short tables give the number of persons ten years of age and over in the United States at the censuses of 1870, 1880, and 1890, as classified by occupations and by sex, and also the percentage which each of these numbers is of the total number of all persons engaged in occupations:

The latter table given, the one showing percentages, is the one to which we must turn for generalization. From it it will be found that the percentage of females engaged in agriculture, fisheries, and mining in 1870 was 6.47 of all persons engaged in that great classification, while in 1890 the precentage was 7.54, only a slight increase. In professional service the percentage rose from 24.86 to 33.01. Curiously enough, however, in domestic and personal service the percentage fell from 42.9 to 38.24, but in trade and transportation the percentage rose from 1.61 to 6.87, while in manufacturing and mechanical industries there was an increase from 14.44 to 20.18. We also see that the proportion of females to the whole number employed rose from 14.68 per cent in 1870 to 17.22 per cent in 1890, while the males decreased from 85.32 per cent in 1870 to 82.78 in 1890.

The two tables under discussion show that the proportion of females, all the occupations of the country being considered, is gradually increasing, not to an alarming extent, but yet steadily, the difference being a little less than 3 per cent.

Expanding the classification from the five great classes for the same years, we have the two tables on the next page, the first giving numbers and the second percentage:

NUMBER OF MALES AND FEMALES TEN YEARS OF AGE OR OVER IN THE UNITED STATES AT THE CENSUSES OF 1870, 1880, AND 1890, BY CLASSES OF OCCUPATIONS.

Classes of occupations.	1870.		1880.		1890.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males	Females.
Agriculture, fisheries, and mining	5,744,314	397,049	7,409,970	594,654	8,333,813	679,523
Professional service	278,841	92,257	425,947	177,255	632,646	311,687
Domestic and personal service	1,338,663	973,157	2,321,937	1,181,506	2,692,879	1,667,698
Trade and transportation	1,209,571	19,828	1,803,629	62,852	3,097,701	228,421
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	2,098,246	353,997	2,783,459	630,890	4,064,051	1,027,242
All occupations	10,669.635	1,836,288	14,744,942	2,647,157	18,821,090	3,914,571

PER CENT OF MALES AND FEMALES TEN YEARS OF AGE OR OVER IN THE UNITED STATES AT THE CENSUSES OF 1870, 1880, AND 1890, BY CLASSES OF OCCUPATIONS.

Classes of occupations.	1870.		1880.		1890.	
	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Agriculture, fisheries, and mining	93.53	6.47	92.57	7.43	92.46	7.54
Professional service	75 14	24.86	70.61	29.39	66.99	33 01
Domestic and personal service	57.91	42.09	66.28	33.72	61.76	38.24
Trade and transportation	98.39	1.61	96.63	3.37	93.13	6.87
Manufacturing and mechanical industries	85.56	14.44	81.52	18.48	79.82	20.18
All occupations	85.32	14.68	84.78	15.22	82.78	17.22

NUMBER OF MALES AND FEMALES TEN YEARS OF AGE OR OVER IN THE UNITED STATES AT THE CENSUSES OF 1870, 1880, AND 1890, IN PRINCIPAL OCCUPATIONS.

Occupations.	1870. Males.	1870. Females.	1880. Males.	1880. Females.	1890. Males.	1890. Females.
AGRICULTURE, FISHERIES, AND MINING.						
Agricultural laborers	2,512,664	373,332	2,788,976	534,900	2,556,957	447,104
Farmers, planters, and overseers	2,958,639	22,681	4,172,049	57,002	5,055,130	226,427
PROFESSIONAL SERVICE.						
Artists and teachers of art	3,669	412	7,043	2,061	11,681	10,815
Musicians and teachers of music	10,257	5,753	17,295	13,182	27,636	34,519
Professors and teachers	42,775	84,047	*a*73,335	*a*154,375	101,278	246,066
DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL SERVICE.						
Boarding and lodging-house keepers	5,725	7,060	6,745	12,313	11,756	32,593
Hotel, restaurant, and saloon keepers, and bartenders	75,580	1,581	111,197	4,334	180,437	10 113
Laborers (not specified)	1,025,095	21,871	1,801,391	62,854	1,858,558	54,815
Launderers and laundresses	5,297	55,609	13,744	108,198	31,831	216,631
Nurses and midwives	806	11,356	1,189	14,412	6,190	41,396
Servants *b*	126,679	873,738	185,078	970,273	244,099	1,302,728
TRADE AND TRANSPORTATION.						
Agents (claim, commission, etc.) and collectors	20,219	97	33,553	436	169,707	4,875
Bookkeepers, clerks, and salesmen *c*	300,190	10,798	498,645	38,088	842,832	171,712
Merchants and dealers	351,536	5,727	464,687	14,752	665,774	25,551
Packers and shippers	5,266	195	8,810	532	18,426	6,520
Telegraph and telephone operators	7,961	355	(*d*)	(*d*)	43,740	8,474
MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES.						
Bookbinders	6,375	2,729	8,342	5,491	12,298	11,560
Boot and shoe makers and repairers	161,485	9,642	173,072	21,007	179,867	33,677
Box makers	3,857	2,223	8,632	7,130	14,286	14,354
Carpet makers	10,292	5,377	9,962	7,106	11,546	10,756
Clock and watch makers and repairers	*e* 1,704	*e* 75	12,002	1,818	20,556	4,696
Confectioners	7,607	612	11,892	1,800	17,577	5,674
Corset makers			795	3,865	733	5,800
Cotton-mill operatives	47,208	64,398	78,292	91,479	80,177	92,965
Dressmakers, milliners, seamstresses, etc. *(f)*	*g* 4,109	*g* 96,533	9,300	297,009	11,468	516,455
Hat and cap makers	9,275	3,350	13,004	3,856	17,319	6,694
Hosiery and knitting-mill operatives	1,664	1,989	4,334	7,860	8,745	20,810
Mill and factory operatives (not specified)	35,258	9,548	26,064	13,568	51,603	41.993
Paper-mill operatives	8,585	3,884	14,711	6,719	18,856	8,961
Printers, compositors, etc	38,920	1,504	69,270	3,456	106,365	12,059
Rubber-factory operatives	2,035	1,851	4,292	2,058	9,706	6,456
Silk-mill operatives	954	2,302	8,860	9,211	14,192	20,663
Tailors and tailoresses	*h* 64,613	*h* 97,207	81,658	52,098	121,591	63,809
Tobacco and cigar factory operatives	36,137	4,134	66,177	10,868	83,634	27,991
Woolen-mill operatives	36,060	22,776	52,504	35.506	47.638	36,471

PER CENT OF MALES AND FEMALES TEN YEARS OF AGE OR OVER IN THE UNITED STATES AT THE CENSUSES OF 1870, 1880, AND 1890, IN PRINCIPAL OCCUPATIONS.

Occupations.	1870. Males.	1870. Females.	1880. Males.	1880. Females.	1890. Males.	1890. Females.
AGRICULTURE FISHERIES, AND MINING.						
Agricultural laborers	87.06	12.94	83.91	16.09	85.12	14.88
Farmers, planters, and overseers	99.24	.76	98.65	1.35	95.71	4.29
PROFESSIONAL SERVICE.						
Artists and teachers of art	89.90	10.10	77.36	22.64	51.92	48.08
Musicians and teachers of music	64.07	35.93	56.75	43 25	44.46	55.54
Professors and teachers	33.73	66.27	*a* 32.21	*a* 67.79	29.16	70.84
DOMESTIC AND PERSONAL SERVICE.						
Boarding and lodging-house keepers	44.78	55.22	35.39	64.61	26.51	73.49
Hotel, restaurant, and saloon keepers, and bartenders	97.95	2.05	96.25	3.75	94.69	5.31
Laborers (not specified)	97.91	2.09	96.63	3.37	97.14	2.86
Launderers and laundresses	8.70	91.30	11.27	88 73	12.81	87.19
Nurses and midwives	6.63	93.37	7.62	92.38	13.01	86.99
Servants *(b)*	12.66	87.34	16.02	83.98	15.78	84.22
TRADE AND TRANSPORTATION.						
Agents (claim, commission, etc.) and collectors	99.52	.48	98.72	1.28	97.21	2.79
Bookkeepers, clerks, and salesmen (*c*)	96 53	3.47	92.90	7.10	83.07	16.93
Merchants and dealers	98.40	1.60	96.92	3.08	96.30	3.70
Packers and shippers	96.43	3.57	94.31	5.69	73.86	26.14
Telegraph and telephone operators	95.73	4.27	(*d*)	(*d*)	83.77	16.23
MANUFACTURING AND MECHANICAL INDUSTRIES.						
Bookbinders	70.02	29.98	60.31	39.69	51.55	48.45
Boot and shoe makers and repairers	94.37	5.63	89.18	10.82	84.23	15 77
Box makers	63.44	36.56	54.76	45.24	49.88	50.12
Carpet makers	65.68	34.32	58.37	41.63	51.77	48.23
Clock and watch makers and repairers	*e* 95.78	*e* 4.22	86.85	13.15	81.40	18.60
Confectioners	92.55	7.45	86.85	13.15	75 60	24.40
Corset makers			17.06	82.94	11.22	88.78
Cotton-mill operatives	42.30	57.70	46.12	53.88	46.31	53.69
Dressmakers, milliners, seamstresses, etc. *(f)*	*g* 4.08	*g* 95.92	3.04	96.96	2.17	97.83
Hat and cap makers	73.47	26.53	77.13	22.87	72.12	27.88
Hosiery and knitting-mill operatives	45.55	54.45	35.54	64 46	29.59	70.41
Mill and factory operatives (not specified)	78.69	21.31	65.77	34.23	55.13	44.87
Paper-mill operatives	68.85	31.15	68.65	31.35	67.79	32.21
Printers, compositors, etc	96.28	3.72	95.25	4.75	89.82	10.18
Rubber-factory operatives	52.37	47.63	67.59	32.41	60.05	39.95
Silk-mill operatives	29.30	70.70	49.03	50.97	40.72	59.28
Tailors and tailoresses	*h* 39 93	*h* 60.07	61.05	38.95	65.58	34.42
Tobacco and cigar factory operatives	89.73	10.27	85.89	14.11	74.92	25.08
Woolen-mill operatives	61.29	38.71	59.66	40.34	56.64	43.36

a Teachers and scientific persons. *b* Includes housekeepers and stewards. *c* Includes stenographers and typewriters. *d* Not separately returned. *e* Clockmakers. *f* Includes sewing-machine operators and shirt, collar, and cuff makers. *g* Seamstresses included with "Tailors and tailoresses." *h* Tailors, tailoresses, and seamstresses.

The increase in some of the percentages in these great subdivisions of occupations is certainly startling. The number of women engaged as artists and teachers of art jumped from 10.10 per cent in 1870 to 48.08 per cent in 1890. Music teachers do not show so great an increase, although the difference is nearly 20 per cent. There has also been a very great increase in the percentage of bookkeepers, clerks, and salesmen, the rise being, for women, from 3.47 in 1870 to 16.93 in 1890. Telegraph and telephone operators show a like advance, the rise being from 4.27 per cent in the former period to 16.23 per cent in 1890. So one can study the table through.

Percentages, however, are not always satisfactory, and in this sense a few special statements may be particularly interesting and a help to the study. The census of 1870 recorded but one architect among the women of this country while 22 were found in 1890. The real increase as to numbers of artists and teachers of art was from 412 in 1870 to 10,810 in 1890. There were no women among the chemists, assayers, and metallurgists in 1870, while the enumerators in 1890 found 46 engaged in these occupations. There were 67 clergywomen in 1870 and 1,235 in 1890. Dentistry has also attracted women, and while there were but 24 in this occupation in 1870 there were 337 in 1890.

Women are also entering the field occupied by designers and draughtsmen, there being 306 in these occupations in 1890 against 13 in 1870. In 1890 there were 127 women engaged as engineers and surveyors, while there were none so employed in 1870. In the journalistic field the number rose in the twenty years from 35 to 888, and the number of lawyers increased from 5 to 208. Musicians and teachers of music numbered, among the women, 5,753 in 1870, while in 1890 there were 34,519. The government female officials, including national, state, county, city, and town governments, rose from 414 in the former to 4,875 in the latter period, while among physicians and surgeons there is a like increase of women, it being from 527 in 1870 to 4,555 in 1890.

The occupation of teacher has been among the most attractive, for in 1870 the women numbered 84,047 and in 1890, 245,965, the latter number including professors in colleges and universities. The latest report of the commissioner of education states that of the whole number of public school teachers in the United States 68½ per cent, and in some of the New England states more than 91 per cent, are women.

Women have made very great inroads among bookkeepers and accountants, including clerks and copyists, for in 1870 the number engaged in these lines was 8,016, while in 1890 it was 91,820. Typewriters were not known in 1870, at least not to a sufficient extent to be considered in the census of that year, although 7 shorthand writers were returned, but of the stenographers and typewriters in 1890 21,185 were women. The number of saleswomen also increased from 2,775 in 1870 to 58,449 in 1890. The latter comparison, however, is not very satisfactory, because in 1870 many saleswomen were undoubtedly returned as clerks in stores.

The results of the last three censuses indicate beyond question that women are gaining in their encroachment upon the occupations of men. In addition to the federal census, however, we now have a report emanating from the United States Department of Labor, entitled "Work and Wages of Men, Women, and Children," one of the objects of the report being to show the facts relative to the wages, earnings, etc., of men, women, and children, taken into comparison. The report deals with two periods, one being some week during 1895 and 1896, and the other period antedating by at least ten years the week for 1895 and 1896. The report deals with 1,067 establishments of various kinds, located in 30 different states. A total of 42,990 males and 51,539 females, or an aggregate of 94,529 persons in all, were found employed in these establishments during the earlier period, and 68,380 males and 79,987 females, or an aggregate of 148,367 persons, during the recent period. It should be remembered that the same

establishment was considered for the two periods. Therefore the conditions are representative, and while the report deals with very many facts relative to conjugal condition, wages, causes of the employment of women in place of men, etc., etc., the chief point to be considered now is that relating to the increase or decrease of the number of females during the ten years.

From the report it is seen that in 931 establishments furnishing complete information 26,479 males eighteen years of age or over were employed in the earlier period as against 43,195 in the present period, and, so far as females are concerned, those eighteen years of age or over numbered 27,163 in the earlier as against 45,162 in the later period. The male employees eighteen years of age or over in these establishments increased 63.1 per cent, while the female employees eighteen years of age or over increased 66.3 per cent, the increase as to numbers being, respectively, 16,716 and 17,999. The analysis of the tables in the report showed that the male employees under eighteen years of age increased, in the establishments considered, 80.6 per cent, and the female employees under eighteen years of age increased 89.1.

The results of this special investigation, then, fully corroborate and verify the results shown by the eleventh census, as compared with the two previous censuses. This comparison, however, drawn from the Eleventh Annual Report of the Commissioner of Labor, relates only to persons engaged in manufacturing.

The fact is absolutely demonstrated that the proportion of females in all occupations followed is gradually increasing and that women are to some extent entering into places at the expense of the males. A A closer study of all the facts, however, shows that while the statement just made is true, women are more generally taking the places of children. Through the influence of a higher intelligence and the action of law, the number of children employed in manufactures is constantly decreasing. In 1870 the percentage of children of the whole number of persons employed in manufacturing was 5.58, while in 1890 the percentage was only 2.68. In very many classes, as children have been excluded through law and other influences, adult women have to some extent taken their places. There need not be any alarm, therefore, as to the encroachments of women upon the occupations held by men.

It is true that during the last fifty years there have been many occupations opened to men that were not known before. This has been the result of railroad building and the application of inventions to industry. Railroad construction and operation opened an exceedingly wide field that has been occupied almost exclusively by men, while all the inventions for the utilization of electricity have opened still greater opportunities, in which women have not met with much consideration, the men holding the field. So as men have stepped out of their old employments, invention has opened paths for new occupations. It can hardly be correct, therefore, to say that women are really hurting the chances of men in business, for, on the whole, the encroachment is slight, as has been shown. In special places of employment, like those of bookkeepers, stenographers, clerks in business houses, etc., there is undoubtedly an encroachment that has injured the opportunities of men to support themselves and their families. Whether the men who have been crowded out have been able to secure equally good positions in other directions is a question that cannot be determined by any statistical method. Special instances have been found in the course of investigations where a male bookkeeper, receiving $2 a day for many years, has been displaced by a young woman, who was paid, perhaps, at the rate of $1 a day, but only for a short time, being soon raised to a salary higher than that paid to the man who preceded her.

Very many reasons are given by employers for their employment of women in place of men, the most common being their greater adaptability for the particular work for which they are employed. Many employers also consider them more reliable,

more easily controlled, cheaper, more temperate, more easily procured, neater, more rapid, more industrious, more careful, more polite, less liable to strike, and more easy to learn. Of course very many employers give a combination of two or more of these reasons.

Without discussing the broader subjects relating to the ethical results of the employment of women in general industries, or the reasons why they do not receive higher pay for work done equally as well as when done by men, it may be concluded that in all probability in those lines in which she can excel man she will in time receive equal compensation with him and will hold the industrial field to that extent, but in those lines in which she is only equal she will have to compete with him, and then her physical strength, her equipment for work, and many other reasons will lead to lesser compensation. In those lines in which she is inferior from any cause whatever she will have to abandon industrial employment.

The facts relative to woman's compensation show that there is progress in her favor, although the statistics bring out a very great economic injustice in this respect. In the investigation referred to it was shown that in 781 instances in which men and women worked at the same occupation, and performed their work with the same degree of efficiency, men received greater pay in 595 cases and women greater pay in only 129, while in only 57 instances out of the whole number did they receive the same pay for the same work, which is only 7.3 per cent of the cases noted. In all probability twenty years ago no woman ever received the same pay as a man, even when she performed her work with the same degree of efficiency. In the cases mentioned she received greater pay than men, under like circumstances, in 16.5 per cent of the cases noted. As she becomes more thoroughly equipped for her work and is willing to devote herself to it with the assiduity with which a man applies himself, the percentages will be increased, and she will be found to be in receipt of like pay for like work. In very many instances at the present time, where work is paid for by the piece, women receive the same pay as men. They may not have the capacity to earn as much, because they cannot turn out as much work, but, so far as compensation for services rendered is concerned, it is being equalized in an increasing number of cases.

AFTER ILLNESS.

BY WILLIAM FRANCIS BARNARD.

FREEDOM! The uncaged bird sings doubly sweet
For that the memory of days long past
Rises, when eager wings have gained, at last,
Old haunts, sweet song, and summer's true retreat;
Sings, joys, till song suffices not, till fleet
It soars and carols, faster and still more fast,
Mounting on high into the azure vast—
A winged melody, joy's self, complete.
Now I am free, my better days begun
Are golden days; for out of seasons run
There rise, to meet each blessing as it nears,
Memories too sweet for happy tears,
Till I must think my joy can ne'er be done,
But still will last with life through all the years.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

A VEGETABLE PATRIARCH.

BY ADA STERLING.

"HOW are the mighty fallen," when a vegetable at one time worshiped as a god in Egypt, consecrated to a goddess in another country, allied by a thousand ties to history, praised by priests and feared by philosophers, has become the synonym for plebeian taste, its flavor decried, its very odor abhorred!

Yet this patriarch, the onion, is historically important, being recorded by Egyptian scribes as in use two thousand years before the Christian era. It is also related that onions were remembered with regretful longings by the Israelites, discontented with their meager fare in the wilderness, and that the priests of Egypt were wont to offer them on the altars to their gods, although obliged to abstain from their use as a food, as an act of priestly self-denial. Both garlic and onions have been esteemed in that country since the very earliest times, and a traveler (Hasselquist) says of them:

> Whoever has tasted onions in Egypt will allow that none better can be had in the universe. Here they are sweet, while in some countries they are nauseous and strong; here they are soft, while in other countries they are hard-coated and compact. Hence they cannot be eaten in any place with less prejudice and [more] satisfaction.

Both the Egyptians and Druids regarded the onion as a symbol of the universe, and the former were commonly reviled for swearing by the leeks and onions in their gardens. Regarding this Pliny says, "The onion and garlic are among the gods of Egypt, and by these they make their oaths." The custom was satirized by the caustic Juvenal as follows:

> How Egypt, mad with superstition grown,
> Makes gods of monsters, but too well is known.
> 'Tis mortal sin an onion to devour;
> Each clove of garlic has a sacred power.
> Religious nation, sure, and blest abodes,
> Where every garden is o'errun with gods!

But while many of the Coptics were afraid of offending their gods by eating leeks, onions, or garlic, others, less rigorous, fed upon them with eagerness and enthusiasm, being possessed of real zest in gastronomy, if not of religious zeal, if we may judge by the couplet:

> Such savory deities must sure be good
> Which serve at once for worship and for food.

The Egyptians of the present day divide the onion into four parts and lay it on beef while it is roasting, and the result is considered so extraordinarily delicious that they devoutly hope the dish will be part of the feasts of paradise.

Among the Greeks the onion was formerly used at marriages, a jar of lentils, one of snow, and one of onions being spoken of as gifts to the daughter of King Cotys upon the occasion of her marriage to Iphicrates. In some places, even in this period, onions are thrown after brides, as is rice in our land.

In the south of England this patriarchal plant was used by girls to divine their future husbands. When the onions were purchased for this purpose it was necessary for the purchaser to enter the shop by one door and go out by another; it was therefore important to select a greengrocer's shop which had two doors. Onions bought in this careful way, if placed under the pillow on St. Thomas' Eve, were warranted to bring visions of the future husband.

Country girls were also wont to take an onion and name it after St. Thomas. It was then peeled and wrapped in a clean handkerchief, after which, placing it carefully on their heads, the maids would say:

> Good St. Thomas, do me right
> And let my true love come to-night,
> That I may look him in the face
> And him in my fond arms embrace.

In "Ye Popish Kingdome" Barnaby Googe relates:

In these same dayes yonge wanton gyrles that meete fore marriage bee
Do search to knowe the names of them that shall theyre husbands bee.
Four onyons, fyve or eyghte they take and make in every one
Suche names as they doe fancy moste and beste doe thynke upon.
Then neare the chimbly them they set, and that same onyon then
That fyrste dothe sproute dothe surely beare the name of theyre goode man.

The followers of Pythagoras abstained wholly from the use of this vegetable, because, like the bean, it was considered too stimulative in its effects. According to the astrologers, this quality is due to the fact that the onion is directly under the influence of Mars.

To dream of eating onions means
Much strife in thy domestic scenes;
Secrets found out or else betrayed
And many falsehoods made and said.

Such dreams were positive auguries of great trouble and generally presaged an illness.

The onion has also been considered a weather prophet, and its signs are thus described:

Onion's skin very thin,
Mild winter's coming in.
Onion's skin thick and tough,
Coming winter cold and rough.

But even this does not exhaust the wonderful properties of this pungent growth, for in Poland the flower-stalk of the leek is often substituted for palms in the hands of the images of Christ on Palm Sunday, and again in many places the juice of the onion is recommended as a cure for deafness. Indeed it has been invested with remarkable powers of healing, and it is said that if hung in a sick-room it draws all maladies to itself. Mythologists relate that when the goddess Latona fell ill she was restored to health after eating an onion, which was thereupon consecrated to her.

In Bohemia the onion is used for fortune-telling, and in other countries it is considered a safeguard against witches, because, being worshiped as is the devil, the devotees of the latter respect it. In Arabia, China, and other eastern lands, onions, together with leeks and garlic, are frequently seen over doorways, tied among sago palms and other plants, the belief being that they keep away the evil one.

Onions are grown from seed or bulb, according to the variety, and notwithstanding the enormous quantity raised by American farmers many thousands of tons are annually imported from Bermuda, Spain, and Portugal to meet the demands of the United States market. Their systematic use as food on ship-board is well known, the object being to prevent scurvy among the sailors. Many women eat them regularly once a week, believing them to brighten and improve the complexion. Those unacquainted with this power dislike them because of their lingering pungency, but it is a fact that if onions be eaten generously, and not merely tasted, this objectionable feature of their use is absolutely counteracted or precluded.

THE FRUIT CURE.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M. D.

A FEW years ago a southern physician established a hygienic hotel in the highlands of the Alleghanies, but had to relinquish his enterprise through lack of patronage.

"They supposed you would veto dancing, didn't they?" asked a friend to whom he had given an account of the undertaking. "Do you not think that may have had something to do with your experience?"

"Yes, but the main trouble was the nonsensical notion that a healthy diet must be insipid," said the doctor. "They probably imagined I was going to feed them on watercresses and crackers."

Yet a still more common cause of sani-

tary failures is the idea that effective remedies must necessarily be nauseous. For centuries drugs were valued in proportion to their repulsiveness. A more than usually loathsome mineral spring generally makes the fortune of its discoverer, and Dr. O. W. Holmes tells a suggestive story about a New England mechanic whose throat was swollen all out of shape, and who confessed that he had found a box of sublimate pills, and, noticing the horrid taste, "concluded that they must be extra good" and proceeded to swallow them by dozens.

Pleasant prescriptions, on the other hand, generally arouse suspicion. "They taste too nice to be good for much," as a customer of my neighbor's drugstore expressed it. Whatever is agreeable is wrong, is the summary of a sadly prevalent sanitary doctrine.

The happiest and most successful health seekers of our latter-day world are probably the summer guests of the *Trauben Kuren*, or grape-cure gardens, that were established some fifty years ago in the neighborhood of Bern, and can now be found all over Switzerland, France, the Rhineland countries, and southern Austria. The manager of the hotel generally employs a physician, though drugs are in very little demand.

"Then what's the good of keeping a doctor, anyhow?" asked a visitor who could not disconnect the ideas of medical art and medicine.

"Oh, some of you fellows have a habit of eating till you burst," laughed mine host, "and we might have to patch you up."

But while the guests stop short of self-explosion there is really not much risk of a surfeit from an overdose of the staple prescription. Ripe grapes, like baked apples and various kinds of berries, can be relied upon to cloy when they reach the verge of a perilous surplus, and while they are still relished there is not much risk of overtaxing the capacity of the digestive organism.

Guests in charge of a medical adviser eat a very light breakfast: a little oatmeal with a cup of milk, generally boiled, then cooled and slightly sweetened. Those who object to gruel can get biscuits instead, or in fashionable establishments perhaps a plateful of buckwheat cakes. Weather permitting, the guests then scatter in quest of a sharp appetite. Athletes climb the nearest mountain top; amateur gardeners go to work with a wheelbarrow and lug in shrubs from the woods, ivy, copper-beeches and juniper bushes, roots and all, for transplantation in the *Kur* park. Naturalists go butterfly hunting and the ladies explore the cliffs for ferns.

But the purpose of all their labors is merely refreshment, and the serious work of the day begins at 10 a. m., when the gates of the vineyard are opened for the forenoon lunch. Helping yourself is the order of the day. Gossipers stroll up and down the leafy avenues, culling tidbits here and there; business men gather a good supply and retreat with a book to some shady nook to spice their lunch with a utilitarian by-purpose.

Grapes are very cheap on the Rhine, say a cent a pound, in an average vintage year, but the board bill of the *Kur* house, too, is extremely moderate, and if a glutton desires to eat his money's worth to the last penny the landlord gives him a fair chance; nobody controls the proceedings of the lunch party, and the dinner bell does not ring before 3 p. m. In other words, the grape-cullers get a five-hours' opportunity to eat their fill, and experts can get away with fifteen pounds more easily and with infinitely less risk to their hygienic interests than a brewery employee with fifteen schooners of alcoholized barley swill.

Grapes, it is true, are chiefly sweet water with a subtle flavoring from nature's own laboratory; but in no other form can the human organism absorb so large a quantity of blood-purifying liquids, with such a minimum of distressing after effects. The expurgative fluid reaches every part of the system, rinsing out morbid humors and restoring congested organs to a healthy state of functional activity, for reasons which, traced to their ultimate significance, mean that man, in a state of nature, is a frugivorous, not a carnivorous, nor a herbivorous biped.

After the five hours' preliminary in the restaurant of our all-mother, mine host can afford to set a liberal dinner. The guests toy with their viands and wait for no precedent to rise and stroll out in the park, where music and newspapers from the next railway station invite to a leisurely siesta.

The vineyard is not reopened that day, but fresh grapes are served in liberal quantities with the frugal supper. Nobody, of course, can prevent perverse guests from paying for the privilege of entering the grape garden with the *Kur* boarders and taking their meals at a hash restaurant, but *bona fide* health seekers mostly take the doctor's advice to abstain from tea and coffee and renounce flesh-pots in favor of what our vegetarians call semi-animal food: milk, butter, and soft-boiled eggs.

With those precautions the benefit of a fruit cure generally extends to the moral constitution. One of my fellow travelers on the Texas prairies described the amenities of a camp on the strawberry plains of the Red River, where cares were forgot while the berries lasted, and the campers enjoyed a buoyancy of spirits that could hardly be attributed to the bracing climate alone. The month of May does happen to bring a period of almost ideal weather in that latitude, but our wagon-master inclined to the vegetarian mode of explanation and mentioned an experience of his own on the upper Brazos, where a pack of half wild dogs had devoured all the meat rations of his teamsters. In stress of circumstances he then took it upon himself to distribute a lot of sugar and dried apples, and with a remarkable result. "Everybody seemed to be in a sweet kind of humor that trip," he said. "No quarrels for a full week; the fellows were singing and joking, instead of grumbling as I expected when all our bacon was gone."

Cooked or baked apples, will, indeed, serve the object of a fruit cure almost as well as grapes, and a sort of instinct appears to encourage the watermelon mania of our southern darkies. Raw apples, the very mellowest excepted, are for some reason or other almost indigestible to dyspeptics; but ripe pears agree with nine out of ten patients, and where grapes are scarce health seekers can substitute sweet berries, especially the fine red raspberries that grow wild in the brushwoods of Michigan and northern Pennsylvania. Our Mexican neighbors resort to fruit for the cure of an *empacho* (literally, a congestion), a form applied to almost any serious disorder of the digestive organs, and I remember a case illustrating the prompt effectiveness of the prescription for the relief of gastric fevers. In a railway camp, where fresh provisions arrived at rather uncertain intervals, a mestizo was taken sick shortly after eating a piece of bread and stale sausage, and before night the symptoms became alarming enough to scare the company doctor into a writing-cramp fit of miscellaneous prescriptions. But the patient declined to be drugged. "Aqua, aqua fria," he moaned, and, finding the local well-water almost undrinkable, his brother hired a horse and started at a galop for the county-seat, where he filled his provender bag with small watermelons. They were not much bigger than cantelopes, but there were six of them, and before morning the patient had eaten himself into a state of convalescence. When the sun rose over the river hills they carried him to a shade-tree, where he fell asleep and awoke restored, or so nearly so that he could go to work again before the end of that afternoon.

I have sometimes thought it would be a good plan to establish a watermelon cure in such places as Macon, Georgia, or berry cures in the Pennsylvania north woods—say a dozen miles north of Scranton, where a gallon of red wild raspberries can be picked in half an hour. The prejudice of our countrymen is giving way under the influence of outing experiments, and I predict that the time is not far distant when dispensaries will procure their supplies chiefly from fruit markets.

LITTLE GIRLS IN FACTORIES.

BY FLORENCE KELLEY.

CHIEF INSPECTOR OF FACTORIES AND WORKSHOPS FOR THE STATE OF ILLINOIS.

IN the factories and workshops of Illinois, the third of the great manufacturing states of the Union, the inspectors found at work last year 2,695 girls under sixteen years of age and 30,781 women and girls over that age. In other words, for every dozen women and older girls there was one little girl at work. The largest number of little girls were in the garment and food trades, 1,440 in the former and 570 in the latter; and in the garment trades more than a thousand of the little girls were in the sweat-shops, as has been pointed out in a former article.

Where a trade is strongly organized, the men take care that boys who enter it shall be of reasonable age for beginning work; and the boys in the factories and workshops of Illinois are but one to 34 men. But women's trades are never strongly organized, and little girls float in and out of the shops and factories as the exigencies of the season may demand, without reference to the welfare of the children themselves.

The work at which little girls are employed is always the worst paid in the factory, and as a general rule the occupations in which they are found are the worst organized and most demoralized occupations. This has already been pointed out in connection with the sweat-shops, and what is true of them is true in less degree of all the occupations into which little girls find their way.

The little factory hands of to-day are chiefly daughters of peasants; even those who were born in this country are almost uniformly children of immigrant peasants. In most cases this is clearly shown in the name and birthplace set forth in their affidavits; and when the name is Americanized it is usually by means of a free translation from the Russian, Bohemian, Polish, or Italian original. These children have a fortunate inheritance of sound brawn and quiet nerves, drawn from generations of simple out-of-door living. This saves them for the present, but their children will have no such inheritance. And even in this first generation the tenement-bred daughter of the peasant develops, soon after entering upon the regular work of the factory, the chronic indigestion and anæmia which so readily end in consumption. This occurs quite uniformly, even in the better sort of factories where the child is spared the specific poison of arsenical paper, mercurial gilding, irritant dye-stuffs, steel-and-emery filings of the wood and metal trades, the nicotine of the tobacco and cigar factories, and the anonymous chemicals of the pickle, fruit-syrup, and patent medicine industries.

Equally vital and lasting is the injury wrought by the excitement and crowding of people and work in the factory. The tenement-bred girl knows little of quiet enjoyment; excitement is her hourly experience from infancy. This the piecework system carries to the highest pitch; and the girl who marries out of the factory at twenty, after six years of "driving" at piecework, has little left of the peasant stolidity to hand on to her own boys and girls. Though she may have succeeded in doing without stimulants more injurious than black coffee and boiled tea, it may be safely predicted that her sons will be less fortunate.

There is nothing in the nature of the industries of Illinois which calls for this sacrifice of little girls. We have none of the textile branches of manufacture which have served so long as an excuse in several of the older states for the employment of little fingers and nimble feet.

The factory law contributes somewhat both to reduce the number of little girls at work and to give stability to the work of each child. After the employer has taken the trouble, before letting the girl begin work,

to obtain the affidavit of the father or mother showing that the child is fourteen years of age; to place her name, age, and address in a list posted on the wall of the room in which she works; to write her name, age, and address, in a book kept especially for this purpose, and (if she is a delicate girl) to obtain also a certificate from a physician stating that she is physically able to perform the work for which she is engaged, that employer is not disposed to discharge that girl unless there is substantial reason for doing so. But he is very likely to say to his bookkeeper, when the next girl is to be engaged, that he prefers one over sixteen years of age and therefore exempt from all these requirements. In this way it has come about that there were a thousand fewer little girls in the factories of Illinois in 1896 than in 1895, and those who were thus employed do not now float about in quite the same irresponsible fashion in which they were drifting when the factory law first took effect in this state in 1893.

The causes which underlie the employment of little girls in factories and workshops are by no means all inevitable causes. They are chiefly the death or disablement of the normal breadwinner in early life and in some preventable way, or the traditional peasant belief that the child at the age of confirmation is ready to begin to earn his bread and learn his trade, or the utter distaste of the child itself for the monotony and stupidity of its school curriculum, which leads it to play truant or plead for escape to the excitement and independence of partial self-support. This last reason applies, perhaps, less to girls than to boys, though it plays a largely determining part with both.

A very large proportion of the little girls who work in factories are orphans deprived of their fathers' care and support by disease and accident, preventable enough if only the public conscience were awake to the need of prevention. Science shows us how to heat, cool, and purify the air in every building. Yet in our stockyards the meat only is kept in pure, cool air; fathers of families are sunstruck in the yards, every summer, for lack of exactly the precautions which are scrupulously taken on behalf of meat. Then the little girls must go into factory or tailor shop to "take care of mother and the baby." Science long since furnished automatic couplers for freight-cars, but they are relatively little used. Every week in the year fathers of families are killed or crippled and their little girls forced out of the home to look for work, by reason of this one single form of failure to take thought for the life, limb, and health of the breadwinners. In many states dangerous machinery is required by law to be safeguarded, and all parts of factories are subject to inspection and regulation. But in Illinois we merely require fire-escapes and the ventilation of friction wheels; all other dangers which factory work entails are ignored, and we trace large numbers of fatherless little girls in factories to this source.

Another source of the employment of little girls is the mistaken belief of immigrant parents that the little daughter who is earning seventy cents, ninety cents, or a dollar a week is also learning a trade which assures her future. The parents themselves learned trades at home, in "the old country," and they are slow to comprehend the new conditions of work.

In this respect the native philanthropist seems to share the fatuity more pardonable in the stranger. Kind-hearted women take incredible trouble to find work for little girls, perhaps in the hope of tiding an orphan family over a bitter winter; perhaps in the idea of helping a girl of twelve or fourteen to that self-maintenance which is thought desirable for the sons and daughters of the well-to-do only after they have attained their majority. Such benefactors do not seem to understand, any more than the immigrant of a week's experience, that no child can learn anything of any value to itself, or its family, or the community in which it is to spend its after life, in the branches of industry to which young children are admitted to-day in any great manufacturing center.

The remedy for the employment of little girls in factories seems to consist in part in direct measures bearing upon the children

and the factories, and in part in that slow process of public education to which we are obliged to take recourse in dealing with every social problem in the republic.

Compulsory education enforced throughout the year to the age of sixteen years, with suitable provision for the children of widows and of disabled fathers, would solve this special problem at one bound ; and this is what the Swiss Republic has done, after the method had been tested twenty years in Canton Zurich. We are not so comprehensive in our measures ; we attack our problems more after the fashion of the kind-hearted little boy who cut off the puppy's tail inch by inch. First the age of work was fixed at ten years, in Massachusetts in 1875 ; then it was raised to twelve, then thirteen years. To-day, it is fourteen years in several states, and in New Jersey and Ohio it has been for many years fourteen for girls and twelve for boys. In some states we are now " inching along " toward sixteen years as the limit, by requiring children under that age who cannot read and write English to attend school certain weeks in each year. The tendency is discernible, though scarcely more than that. It will take years of patient work to educate public opinion to the point of conserving the precious heritage of health and intelligence for *all* the children, by keeping them in good schools until they are really old and strong enough to go to work without injury to themselves in the present and their children in the future.

Meantime every step taken toward prolonging the life of workingmen and their ability to continue in their trade, and every improvement which makes school more attractive and more worth attending, contributes to solve the problem in the most natural way and to reduce, without direct intervention, the number of little girls in factories.

THE ART OF LETTER-WRITING.

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER.

ONE comes now and then upon a lamentation over the decay of the fine art of letter-writing, and it cannot be denied that letters no longer hold the honorable place once assigned them in the world of literature. The newspaper, the magazine, the telegraph, and the more garrulous telephone have taken from the pen of the scribe much of its occupation. People who are in the way of being immortalized for posterity no longer find it necessary to record their emotions in diaries and their reflections in correspondence, for the benefit of their biographers, but deem themselves fortunate if their unspoken thoughts are not divined by the interviewer and served as the first course at every breakfast-table in the land.

As for humbler folk, the possible topics for correspondence are narrowed to those strictly personal, over which one does not wax eloquent at the risk of destroying the flavor, and a letter which will follow you the world over at the cost of two cents may well be filled with trifles light as air.

Yet not even an old book has the charm of a packet of old letters, preserving the very breath of household life and love, that found perhaps its only expression in this sacred sort of speech, significant in its very reserve and control. A bundle of letters lies now before me, bearing dates from 1815 to 1819, the paper thick and yellow, but the ink unfaded and the handwriting clear in its copperplate perfection. The convenient envelope had not been invented, but it was a part of every child's training to fold a letter in straight lines and accurate angles so that the blank page slipped over the rest, to be secured by the big red wafer.

A letter was a letter in those days, for these epistles, sent from a Connecticut town to Middlebury, Vermont, paid postage in the sum of 37½ cents each, one which contained money having cost 52½ cents. They are from a father to his son in college,

yet they are filled with the stateliest ceremony and the news is mainly of religious awakening in the church and sober dissertations upon public affairs. One hopes the poor little freshman had occasionally a more human document from the females of his family, and had at least one friendly bosom into which he could pour his immature reflections upon the quality of his boarding-house hash and his disciplinary interviews with the sophomores. The only approach to fun in the collection is purely unintentional, and I shudder to imagine the reprobation with which my stern ancestor would have looked forward to a possible descendant who should profanely laugh at an entry like this:

Christopher M—— by a very general vote of our church is separated from his relation to us the charges are neglect of attendance and intemperance judge P—— advocated his part very warmly on the last mentioned charge he considered it very hard treatment to punish for an excess of that kind on the 4th of July he said he could not engage for himself to keep within the bounds of moderation on all occasions such an avowal from him gave his brethren more uneasiness than M——'s criminality it is not best to mention it as it appears very reproachful to our church.

When themes like this formed the staple of familiar correspondence, and the letter thus freighted cost almost its weight in gold for transportation, letters were prized and filed carefully, to be treasured among family documents, and many a missing link in history has been restored from such sources. We are indebted for most of our knowledge of early life in New England and the South to the store of old letters, written from farm, plantation, or gay little city, brought out after these years, smelling of rose and lavender, and precious with the romance of a past generation. Has all this gone with the loom and the spinning wheel? Will the letters of to-day be so cherished, and is any one filing them for posterity in scented packets against the day when our civilization will be as quaint and out of date as that of the Puritans?—when pretty lips will curl in curious amusement over these clumsy relics of an age when thought transference was still imperfect, and wires were used for electric communication? Here and there perhaps some epistles are on the way to such immortality—shall we say happy or unhappy?

For a letter is as full of reactionary possibilities as a boomerang, and poet and politician fall before it with equal fatality. With cheap postage, fountain pens, and rapid transit one is tempted to pour the unconsidered thought of the moment into the ear of a friend for the mere relief of expression, and it is appalling to reflect that what was the whimsical mood of the fancy may be brought up some day as the serious creed of the convictions. If the universe were one vast phonograph, and all the unconsidered trifles of speech were gathered up with the certainty that at any moment they might be turned back upon us, we should most of us find silence the better part of eloquence.

But a letter is speech crystallized—made permanent, with its possibilities multiplied; therefore the fundamental exhortation to letter-writers would seem to be the Scripture injunction, "Take heed what ye speak."

But take heed wisely. Beware of personalities, beware of sarcasm, beware of careless gossip, but do not be stately and philosophical. In nine cases out of ten your friend would rather hear of your struggles with the setting hen than what you think of Schopenhauer, and will find your garden a more diverting theme than last Sunday's sermon. The small woes and raptures of daily life, the trifles that act as life-preservers to keep weightier matters from sinking us, even the weather, judiciously treated, will give your correspondent the refreshing sense of having sat by your side and "talked back." It is possible to chat instead of sermonize over books and magazines, preserving the essential quality of a letter, its informality and distinctive flavor of personality.

Letters of travel have become a scoff because the majority of voyagers see nothing not laid down on their charts, and exhaust their readers with catalogues of familiar details. The wanderer whose trail we love to fol-

low sees the Swiss peasant going home with his loaf of bread like a leather cushion under his arm, the thrifty housewife bargaining for onions regardless of Mt. Blanc, the "little red soldier" surreptitiously taking his lunch in the Tuileries gardens, the delightfully superior English woman examining the treasures of the Louvre with a most patent expression of, "Let us see what these creatures have managed to steal."

It is the little things that illuminate and make vivid, and letters that use them effectively are never dull on the most familiar ground.

Might not the art of letter-writing be taught in our schools as a variety of composition infinitely more valuable than the crude attempts of the young to express sentiments which they must needs have acquired at second hand, and opinions upon subjects entirely beyond their grasp? The delightful letter-writer will always be born, as the poet is, but there is an open field for the study of choice of matter, grace of diction, and individuality of expression, not to mention the bare mechanical details of form, concerning which multitudes of intelligent people are distressingly ignorant.

One would not go back to the old-time boarding-school epistle, that made its appearance periodically in the home, expressing in faultless orthography the gratitude of the pupil "to my excellent and devoted teachers who take much pains with my education, and to you my beloved parents who so generously provide these advantages for my improvement."

One can fancy the unlucky urchin painfully transcribing his clean copy, and slipping in after official inspection the more human postscript:

Deer mama, I tore my best close awfle. I nead sum munny the worst kind and say if I can go in swimmin.

We cannot afford to do away with spontaneity, but originality in children of a larger growth need not find expression in omitting date, address, and signature, or a score of other minor matters which I may discuss in a succeeding article.

GOD ONLY KNOWS.

BY JOSEPHINE MASON LESLIE.

GOD only knows how many times we falter
On our long pilgrimage unto his throne,
To offer at some alien, wayside altar
The homage that we owe to him alone.

God only knows our secret, bitter weeping,
When cherished hopes are dead and faith grows faint;
When "God forgets," we say, "or he is sleeping,"
And send to heaven not prayer, but wild complaint.

God only knows how often we deny him,
Turning away rebellious, without shame,
To follow our desires; when we defy him
Because his will and ours are not the same.

No earthly monarch would endure such treason;
No parent could forgive such wrongs as those.
O troubled heart, thou tremblest without reason!
Lift up thine eyes—rejoice! God only knows.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

ANNUAL G. A. R. RALLY.

J. P. S. GOBIN.
The New Commander-in-Chief of the G. A. R.

A GREATER number of veterans turned out to the thirty-first encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic at Buffalo, N. Y., August 24–28 than ever attended any previous national encampment. Commander-in-Chief Thaddeus S. Clarkson presided over the encampment. On the evening of August 24 Columbia Post entertained President McKinley at a large banquet. Here in the course of a speech the president said: "The army of Grant and the army of Lee are together. They are one now in faith, in hope, in fraternity, in purpose, and in an invincible patriotism. And therefore the country is in no danger. In justice strong, in peace secure, and in devotion to the flag all one." On the following day the streets of Buffalo, made gorgeous with decorations, witnessed the grand parade of the veterans. Forty-five thousand men were in line, with President McKinley riding at their head. The adjutant's report, given on August 26, shows that for the year ending June 30, 1897, the total membership of the G. A. R. was 362,816, of whom 319,456 were in good standing, and that during that year the number of deaths was 7,515. J. P. S. Gobin of Lebanon, Pa., was elected the new commander-in-chief, and Cincinnati, O., was chosen for the encampment of 1898. Later elections decided upon Comrade Alfred Lyth, of Bidwell-Wilkeson Post, Buffalo, for senior vice-commander-in-chief; for junior vice-commander-in-chief, F. B. Allen, of Connecticut; surgeon-general, Dr. David Mackaye; chaplain-in-chief, Rev. Frank C. Bruner, of the First Methodist Church of Chicago, Ill. Favorable action was taken by the encampment on the matter of pensions for widows and for veterans over sixty-two years of age. A report was adopted recommending Congress to reserve for parks several battle-fields of Fredericksburg, Va., and those of Vicksburg, Stony River, and Appomattox. The report of the committee on text-books, criticizing some of the histories used in the South, was adopted.

(Rep.) The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

Glory and honor are filling the gaps made by time in the ranks of the Grand Army, and age is only increasing the devotion of the veterans of the Union armies to their great organization. It will be many years before the annual national encampment of the G. A. R. can cease to be one of the most important events that fix the attention of the American people.

(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The Grand Army of the Republic has now no great mission to perform except that of keeping alive the spirit of patriotism which called it into being, of decorating the graves of the dead, and of caring for unfortunate comrades and their widows and orphans. All of these duties it discharges faithfully. Without the directing aid of the posts, Memorial Day would have been forgotten long ago instead of becoming as it has a national holiday only second in importance to the Fourth of July.

(Rep.) Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

A grateful nation has a warm place in its heart for the men who fought that it might live, and with the march of time their deeds grow in luster.

(Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The [president's] words, addressed alike to the soldiers who wore the blue and to those who fought in gray uniforms, have almost the ring of Abraham Lincoln's rhetoric. We are sure that if the president had the decisive word in the matter the Grand Army of the Republic would go to Richmond in 1899 in response to the generous and patriotic invitation which Gen. Bradley T. Johnson and a few like him have tried in vain to discredit.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Brigadier-General John P. S. Gobin, who has just been elected commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic, is a veteran of prominence and popularity, and he will be relied on to carry the honors of his new office with dignity and credit to the organization. He was one of the old soldiers who fought their way up from the ranks to positions of distinction.

* This department, together with the book "The Social Spirit in America," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

THE RULERS OF FRANCE AND GERMANY IN RUSSIA.

CZAR NICHOLAS II. OF RUSSIA.

THE court of the czar of Russia has attracted all eyes this month because of the visits of Emperor William and Empress Augusta Victoria, of Germany, and President Faure, of France. The German majesties were escorted on their journey by a German squadron. They arrived at Cronstadt, Russia, on August 17. There they were met by the czar and czarina and were taken on the Russian imperial ship to Peterhof. In replying to the czar's welcome, the emperor said he would "aid the czar against any one plotting to disturb the peace" and that in so doing he would be backed by the whole German nation. On departing, August 11, the guests were accompanied by the czar and czarina to the Cronstadt Roads. President Faure's trip was inauspiciously begun by the explosion of a bomb as he was leaving Paris. It failed to do any harm and the president proceeded to Dunkirk, where he took ship. Two other ships acted as escort. The president arrived in Cronstadt on August 23. Here he was met by Grand Duke Alexis, the high admiral of Russia, an uncle of the czar, who took the president aboard the Russian ship and proceeded with him to Peterhof. At Peterhof he was received by the czar in person and was demonstratively welcomed by the Russian populace. The president took his departure on August 26, the czar and czarina accompaning him as far as Cronstadt. While on the French ship, in a toast to the president the czar said: "Your stay among us creates a fresh bond between our two friendly and allied nations, which are equally resolved to contribute with all their power to the maintenance of the peace of the world in the spirit of right and equity." This was the first official mention made, during the visit, of an alliance between Russia and France, and was the cause of enthusiastic celebrations by the French people upon the president's return to Paris.

CZARINA ALEXANDRA FEODOROVNA OF RUSSIA.

EMPEROR WILLIAM II. OF GERMANY.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Russia is in no danger of attack. It is only France that would profit by a purely defensive alliance, except as it is indirectly for the czar's interest that France should continue to be a counterpoise to Germany. Some consideration more potent than such indirect interest, we think, must have been offered to the Russian autocrat to induce him to enter into a coalition with the French Republic. What could have tempted him except what is known as an offensive and defensive alliance, not indeed, unlimited in scope, but permitting a certain range of Muscovite ambitions in the near and the far East?

EMPRESS AUGUSTA VICTORIA OF GERMANY.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The Franco-Russian alliance is apparently inconsistent, but it serves to keep the balance of power in Europe, and, from a political point of view, is justified as clearly as that of the Triple Alliance.

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Russia's interests bind her to the continental power with the most powerful navy. She would not need assistance on land in a war with any other power. On the water, however, she is incomparably inferior to Great Britain, and needs the assistance of France to give her a power at sea as well as on land equal, or nearly equal, to the greatest power in the world.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

Undoubtedly the popular reception of President Faure was far more hearty and enthusiastic than that accorded to the emperor. It is probable that the czar will make no great concession to France, and it is highly probable that he made none to Emperor William. He seems to be a man of good, strong sense, and he does not let anything or anybody turn his head.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

There will be grief in the Hohenzollern family when the kaiser shall discover that the sole outcome of his uninvited call on the czar was the supply of a standard for the measurement of the warmth of Russia's friendship for the French Republic.

PRESIDENT FAURE OF FRANCE.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The terms of the alliance and its objects remain a diplomatic secret. Nevertheless it may be asserted with confidence what the compact does not aim at. Russia requires a long era of peace in order to foster the industrial development of the empire, which is proceeding by leaps and bounds, and the *revanche* of France for the dismemberment of 1871 will have to be indefinitely postponed.

The Evening Star. (Washington, D. C.)

The czar is a young man of tact and capacity, but he undoubtedly has a most difficult task on hand if he is to keep the friendship of two powers so fiercely antagonistic in all things toward each other as are Germany and France.

THE DISCRIMINATING DUTY IN THE NEW TARIFF.

NOBODY as yet has been found who will own to inserting section 22 in the new tariff law. It was not in the tariff bill as passed by the House and Senate, but was introduced in the Conference Committee and was unnoticed when the bill was returned to the two houses for a final vote. As enacted the section reads: "That a discriminating duty of ten per centum *ad valorem*, in addition to the duties imposed by law, shall be levied, collected, and paid on all goods, wares, or merchandise which shall be imported in vessels not of the United States, or which, being the production or manufacture of any foreign country not contiguous to the United States, shall come into the United States from such contiguous country; but this discriminating duty shall not apply to goods, wares, or merchandise which shall be imported in vessels not of the United States, entitled at the time of such importation by treaty or convention to be entered in the ports of the United States on payment of the same duties as shall then be payable on goods, wares, and merchandise imported in vessels of the United States, nor to such foreign products or manufactures as shall be imported from such contiguous countries in the usual course of strictly retail trade." Besides the blow this measure deals to Canadian transportation lines from the seaboard in favor of rival American lines and to the ship interests of foreign countries not exempted by treaty or convention, it, according to some authorities, strikes at Great Britain through her colonies. For these authorities state that our treaty with Great Britain exempts imports brought in British vessels only when from British possessions in Europe. Imports brought from other countries in British vessels, therefore, cannot escape the discriminating duty.

(Rep.) The Press. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The Canadian Pacific has been built as an "imperial" highway. It owes its existence to land grants and subsidies, the latter heavily increasing the Canadian debt. As the interstate commerce commission has repeatedly pointed out, it carries on a destructive competition with our transcontinental railroads because it is free from the just restraints imposed on them by federal law. Its existence and management are throughout part of the avowed policy of "imperialist" England to plant a hostile power along our northern frontier, and at Halifax and Esquimault more has been spent in forts and graving docks for military purposes than has been

expended at Gibraltar, Aden, or elsewhere on the route to India. The commercial operation of this military line, constantly discussed as part of the English military system, has been rendered possible because it was allowed to divert through traffic from our through lines by rates made in defiance of the long and short haul principle imposed on our roads. It is time American trade ceased to support this "imperial" line, and the way to stop it is by a differential duty.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Our tariffs are intended primarily for our own protection and benefit, and to keep the bread in the mouths of our own people, a good many of the hungriest of whom the European nations have sent to us.

(Ind.) The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

The discrimination against Canadian railways—a fraud evidently, but a fraud in harmony with the bill itself—falls most heavily on New England. It will be followed, no doubt, by Canadian discriminations against American railways, which will affect injuriously the railways of New England and New York.

(Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The discriminating duty of ten per cent had been deliberately retained for future usefulness. It will go into effect whenever the treaties giving to foreign vessels equal privileges with our own in this respect shall be abrogated. It is right that the ten per cent discriminating duty should remain in the tariff, for Congress may decide at the very next session to abrogate those treaties in the interests of American shipping.

(Ind.) The Ledger. (Tacoma, Wash.)

The discriminating clause in the tariff bill, which is causing much vigorous protest from the Canadian railways, is only tit for the Canadian tat, though it was not put in with that special aim but rather as a protection to American railway and shipping interests. The same thing was done by the Dominion Parliament in the so-called "Galt tariff," discriminating against tea brought from the United States. As a Canadian financial paper says, it is chickens coming home to roost.

(Dem.) The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The ten per cent differential against goods from foreign countries transported over Canadian railways, which unaccountably "slipped into" the Dingley Bill, is going to cost American producers a pretty penny through the loss of their trade with their northern neighbor.

ENGLAND DENOUNCES HER COMMERCIAL TREATIES.

GREAT BRITAIN has taken a decisive step toward a change in her commercial policy. Some time ago she sought to abrogate from her treaties with Belgium and the German zollverein the articles stipulating that imports from these countries shall not be subject to higher duties in the British colonies than are similar imports of British origin. But these countries insisted on adhering to all or none of their respective treaties with Great Britain. Consequently the treaties were allowed to run on without further ado until July 30. Then Great Britain gave notice to Belgium and to the German zollverein that her present commercial treaties with them must end. Accordingly they ceased to be operative on July 30, 1897, the one with the German zollverein having been in effect since May 30, 1865. These compacts with their articles in question once abrogated, England will be able to avail herself of the advantages above all other countries granted her in Canada's tariff law published on April 22. In this law Canada offers to admit British goods coming to her ports from April 23, 1897, to July 1, 1898, at a duty 12½ per cent less than she will impose on goods from any other country, and after July 1, 1898, the preference will be raised to 25 per cent.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The French treaty was abrogated years ago by France, in order that the latter might adopt protection in a more emphatic form. The others are now denounced by Great Britain herself in order that she may adopt not, perhaps, protection, but at least a system fully as hateful to every true free trader. It is, indeed, the American system that is adopted, the system which looks first to the development of domestic commerce and industry, rightly deeming that to be the best basis for expansion of foreign trade.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

For England to let slip such an opportunity to extend its trade with the colonies and thus bind the empire closer together would have been folly, and even at the risk of a tariff war the course taken is a wise one.

(Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Whether the other self-governing colonies will follow Canada's example and give England preferential rates remains to be seen. It is questionable whether a monopoly of their market would compensate England for the losses incident to the denunciation of the Belgian and German treaties.

(Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The termination of her commercial treaties with Germany and Belgium by England is only a logical outcome of her new colonial policy, which is exemplified in the preferential provisions of the new Canadian tariff.

(Ind.) The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The practical resolve of Canada to favor the producers of the British Isles in return for trade liberty granted to the colony has persuaded the London cabinet to dare a tariff, or at least a commercial war with Germany.

(Rep.) Denver Republican. (Col.)

It would be practicable for Great Britain to adopt and maintain a protective tariff policy toward all the remainder of the world which would at the same time involve absolute free trade within the limits of the empire. Such a policy would stimulate the development of the resources of the empire and bring its several parts into close relation with one another. It would do more than anything else that might be devised to promote imperial federation along lines that would insure the prosperity and endurance of the British Empire as a great national or imperial union.

THE MINERS' STRIKE.

ALL efforts to settle the miners' strike so far have failed, and during August the armies of strikers won thousands of recruits. In addition to the several injunctions against the strikers in July, six injunctions are reported from Parkersburg, W. Va., as having been granted on August 14, and two more on August 16 by Judge Jackson of the United States Court. On August 18 the preliminary injunction of last month against the strikers of Turtle Creek, Pa., and vicinity, led by Patrick Dolan, was made permanent and an injunction was issued against the Bunola, Pa., miners. Two days later, on August 20, the miners called a convention of organized labor to be held the following week at St. Louis, Mo. On the same day coal operators, with a view to ending the strike, organized in Pittsburg, Pa. They held a conference with a delegation of miners on August 24, but no agreement was effected. Nor was any solution of the difficulty found in the session of organized labor in St. Louis, which lasted during August 30–31. An interstate miners' meeting held at Columbus, O., September 8–9, to consider proposals made by the operators, adjourned without deciding whether to accept or reject the conditions offered. Governor Hastings called out the militia on September 10 to enforce order at Hazelton, Pa.

(Rep.) The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

The right of free assembly is as sacred as the right of free speech. The law should only step in to protect property or prevent violence, and a court has no right to assume that a public assemblage will lead to violence.

(Dem.) The Pittsburg Post. (Pa.)

One political party in this country has taken strong ground that government by injunction must be modified, at least to the extent of maintaining the right of trial by jury. That was the Democratic party at its national convention held last year in Chicago, and it had in view precisely such assertions of judicial power as have lately been witnessed in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio.

(Dem.) The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

We think such use of restraining orders is, generally speaking, a mistake, and liable to lead to grave abuse of judicial authority. We would like to see this practice specifically regulated, even abridged, by a carefully guarded statute.

(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Low wages, cheap labor are not wanted here, and our workmen should unite upon the common ground of demanding legislation which will put up insurmountable legal barriers against it.

(Ind.) Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The publication of the full text of Judge Jackson's coal strike injunction against Debs and others shows that it is really more ridiculous than objectionable. It does not enjoin from peaceably inciting men to strike, but from "unlawfully inciting persons who are engaged in working in the mines, from ceasing to work in the mines." There cannot be said to be much harm in enjoining people from doing that which they cannot do lawfully anyway; that is as if a court of equity should undertake to forbid men to steal or murder.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The proposal to camp about and march before them [the miners still at work] day after day, and refuse to respect their free decision as final, and persist in argument and appeal and display of force until they yield, is in its very nature a warfare against the freedom of the workers and the employers. Such an interference, it must be granted, the law should be able in some way to prevent without restricting any legitimate enjoyment of individual rights.

(Dem.) Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

The coal miners' strike now promises to be successful, when it has created the market conditions necessary to warrant the advance of wages they demand; but that prospect will be darkened or destroyed if the strikers begin to defy the law, as they now show a disposition to do. They would do well to obey their leaders' advice.

(Rep.) Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

Both the operators and the miners missed an opportunity to score a great victory for the principle of arbitration when they failed to secure an agreement at Pittsburg. As the matter progresses we believe this fact will be made more and more clear to all concerned.

BRITISH AND AMERICAN SCIENTIFIC CONVENTIONS.

PROF. WOLCOTT GIBBS.
President of the American Association for the Advancement of Science.

Two important conventions in the interest of science took place in August on American soil. They were held respectively by the American and by the British Associations for the Advancement of Science. The former association began its session on August 9, at Detroit, Mich., with an attendance of 200. Its president is Prof. Wolcott Gibbs, of Harvard. In order to consider separate sciences at the same time, the audience was distributed into sections. The chairmen of these sections discoursed on the sciences in their respective departments and were followed by other specialists on the subjects. Among the chief addresses made was that by Richard T. Colburn, for the section of social and economic science; I. C. White, geology; William P. Mason, chemistry; Carl Barus, physics; W. J. McGee, anthropology; W. W. Beman, mathematics and astronomy; Professor Hoard, zoology; George F. Atkinson, botany; John Galbraith, mechanical science and engineering. The British Association also met in sections. Its president for this year was Sir John Evans. About 1,200 persons were present. The leading speakers before the various sections were Dr. J. Scott Keltie, geography; A. R. Forsyth, mathematics; George F. Deacon, mechanical science; William Ramsay, chemistry; L. C. Mial, zoology; M. Foster, physiology; H. Marshall Ward, botany; Mr. Gonner, economics; G. M. Dawson, geology; Sir William Turner, anthropology. Other famous lecturers of the occasion were Lord Lister, the retiring president of the association, the two explorers Mr. Selons and Sir George Scott Robertson (the hero of Chitral), and the physicist Lord Kelvin, who before 1892 was known as Sir William Thompson. The latter in an address on the world's fuel supply set forth a practical use for garbage.

SIR JOHN EVANS.
President of the British Association for the Advancement of Science.

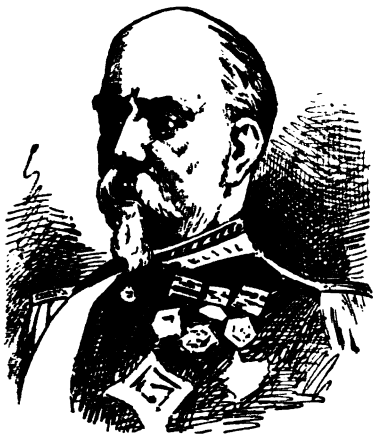
The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The British Association for the Advancement of Science is easily the leading scientific body of today, despite the fact that the similar organization in this country possesses members equaling in reputation and accomplishment those of Great Britain. But the day is past when the question of nationality entered into the progress of science. Lord Kelvin, for instance, like our own Thomas Edison, belongs to the world at large. Such men, and their fellows, wipe out mere geographical boundaries.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The meeting in Toronto emphasizes peculiarly certain features of all British Association conventions that may be noted with profit in the United States. In the first place, there are the veterans of science, like Lord Kelvin and Lord Lister, who have reached a ripe old age, won all the honors and emoluments that come from active participation in affairs, and are therefore free from selfish ambitions or petty vanity. The way in which these men attend meeting after meeting, lending encouragement not only by their presence, but also by adding to the current news and discussions, and even crossing the ocean at considerable expense and inconvenience, is a highly instructive spectacle. One can easily count up a dozen, even twenty, representative scientists in this country, who have either never helped the American Association at all or who have ceased to take part in its meetings, perhaps having first enjoyed the highest honors which that organization can bestow. The hard work of keeping the American Association alive is left almost entirely to the younger and less conspicuous scientists of the United States. If the excuse be offered that the various sciences now have their own separate assemblies here, one may reply that this is equally true in Great Britain. And even though our own country has a National Academy for the very elect, it must be remembered that the foremost members of the Royal Society are active in the British Association also.

SPAIN'S NEW PREMIER.



GEN. MARCELO DE AZCARRAGA.
Spain's New Premier.

GENERAL AZCARRAGA, who upon the death of Canovas del Castillo was appointed temporary premier of Spain, now has that office regularly. He was confirmed in it by the queen regent on August 20. On August 26 he announced at a cabinet council that he would adhere to the policy of Canovas as far as possible, and that Captain-General Weyler would be retained in Cuba. Gen. Marcelo de Azcarraga was born in the Philippine Islands in 1832. As a soldier he gained distinction and was appointed to a war office in Madrid, Spain. In 1857 he was promoted to a commandant and sent to Cuba. He became chief of a Spanish expeditionary corps in Mexico in 1861 and in Cuba in 1863. In 1864 he was made lieutenant-colonel. Returning to Spain he served at various times as assistant secretary of state, helped crush the Carlist revolt, and was active in reorganizing the army. The rank of lieutenant-general was given him. In 1880 he served as captain-general in Navarre and in Valencia. At Valencia three years later he suppressed a Carlist-Liberal uprising. General Azcarraga was minister of war in the cabinet of Premier Canovas in 1890–92 and again from 1895 to the time of his appointment to the premiership. He will retain the Canovas cabinet unchanged.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

General Azcarraga is not merely prime minister of Spain; he is, as we have said, a representative and an embodiment of Spanish national sentiment on the Cuban question. The government of the United States is likewise representative of American opinion. The two may therefore deal with each other with all possible authority, both political and moral. Certainly negotiations between them should be fruitful of good.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

How is it that Premier Azcarraga, if he knows of these things, or has any understanding of the situation in Cuba, can make announcement that he "remains in accord" with Weyler and will uphold him? It was Azcarraga who held the office of minister of war in the Canovas cabinet; it was he who provided for the sending of 200,000 Spanish soldiers to Cuba; it has been his duty to study the official despatches from Havana ever since the war broke out; and we should suppose he would be able to discern the results of Weyler's campaigning during the past eighteen months. This accord of Azcarraga is about as inexplicable as the performances of Weyler.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The present ministry stands too firmly committed to its late chief's "strong" policy in Cuba to be able to reverse the same, and at the same time neither General Azcarraga nor any other member of the cabinet has the overmastering spirit required to carry out that policy to the bitter end.

WHEAT'S UPWARD FLIGHT.

THE dollar mark in the price of wheat was reached in New York on August 20 for the first time since March 12, 1892, or since five years and five months ago. Chicago followed on August 21 with wheat at $1.00 a bushel. The highest point was reached on August 24, in New York, when September wheat (wheat deliverable in September) sold for $1.06¾ and cash wheat $1.14¼ a bushel. The market reports for August and early September also show a rise in other food stuffs, and in many other commodities, especially cotton, and a new low price in silver.

American Grocer. (New York, N. Y.)

It is certain that crop conditions abroad are such as to insure the American farmer the best returns he has had for six long and trying years. The foundation of prosperity is thus laid with the farmers, who constitute nearly one half of our population. When they are prosperous the entire country enjoys the best of good times. They are here, and likely to stay.

(Ind.) The Ledger. (Tacoma, Wash.)

The workingman who complains that, although wheat is up and farmers are prosperous, he is not benefited, has not looked below the surface. His cry is that he has to pay more for his flour; it is ten to one that his wages have been advanced in a still larger ratio. But if he will look over the papers he will find that the prosperous farmer is buying more than ever of farm machinery and

wagons and other manufactured articles; this is aiding to start the factories; that large crops and good prices made increased employment of men on railways, wharves, and steamships. In fact, one class cannot prosper in this country without all receiving some benefit.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The plain people note the beginning of bad times in November, 1892, within a fortnight of Mr. Cleveland's election, and the era of good times in August, 1897, within a fortnight after the enactment of a Republican tariff, and forty years of agonized special pleading will not alter the conclusion which most men form.

(Dem.) Cincinnati Inquirer. (O.)

Of course it is a fact that the president is by no possible construction entitled to the slightest credit for the rise in wheat. In spite of that rise the iniquity of the gold monometallic policy remains, and the general depression will continue till it is removed.

(Dem.) The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The rise in the price of wheat, in whatever light it is considered, is a most happy accident. Even if it shall result in temporarily bolstering a mistaken revenue policy it will at the same time have decisively checked the tendency to desperate monetary experiments.

(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

A whole series of false doctrines will be swept aside by the return of prosperity with silver a drug in the market. That object-lesson alone will be worth millions of dollars to this country.

(Rep.) The Kansas Capital. (Topeka.)

We believe the farmer will not fail to appreciate the vast gain it would have been to him had the McKinley tariff and the Harrison administration been continued in force from '92 to '97. In place of fifty cent wheat in that period he should have had nearer a dollar.

(Rep.) Denver Republican. (Col.)

The farmers have been economizing for four years, and their unsatisfied wants will make a vast market for most of the products of our mills and factories in the near future.

(Rep.) Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

The rise in the price of wheat comes at a fortunate time for the grower, as the crops have not been generally sold to the middlemen or buyers in the West.

THE REBELLION IN INDIA.

THE northwestern frontier of British India is now a hotbed of revolt. The rebel leader, Mad Mollah, who began the trouble in midsummer has won to his ranks even the large tribe of Afridis, that in other wars has proved most loyal to the British. By August 25 the Afridis had seized the Khyber Pass, which they now hold, the Mohmand tribesmen were threatening the district about Fort Shabkadr, the Orakzais were rioting in Kurram Valley, and the natives in Swat Valley and Tochi Valley were fighting against two large brigades of English troops. According to advices of August 28 the British had driven off the raiders in the Kohat district and dispersed the Orakzais from the plains. To offset these successes there is the critical condition of the garrisons on the Samona range, and at Quetta in Beluchistan. The ameer of Afghanistan was suspected by the British authorities in India of conspiring with Turkey to incite the rebels to a holy war against the British in India. On August 18 the Turkish government formally denied any such understanding with the ameer. The ameer also disclaimed all responsibility for the uprising, and it was reported that in a convention of his chiefs he renewed his oath always to remain a friend of the British government. Yet on August 29 news was received that the ameer had ordered the faithful to make ready for a holy war, and had convened a council of mollahs at Cabul.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

A *jehad* [holy war] may mean revolt not only against British rule in India, but against French rule in Algeria, and even against Russian on the Oxus and Jaxartes. That is the consideration which makes these Indian troubles appear so grave. It is not an Indo-Moslem mutiny against John Company. It is a Pan-Islamic antagonism against all Christendom. That is the peril to the peace of the world.

The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

It is very improbable that the British will let any insurrectionary movement gather headway enough to be dangerous. It is altogether likely, on the other hand, that they will use more Hindu troops and fewer Mohammedans in the native army of India, and thus lessen the relative and absolute power of the warlike Moslems to shake the hold of the white rulers of their country.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

It is significant, at least, that just when Lord Salisbury's firm attitude in regard to the Turkish evacuation of Thessaly was giving the sultan the most trouble, and even threatened to imperil the "concert of Europe," there should occur a native uprising in northwestern India on the borders of Afghanistan, whose ruler and people are devout Mohammedans. It at least seems very much as if the ameer, who is friendly to Russia and acknowledges the sultan as the head of the Mohammedan world, had received word from Constantinople to remind

England that it had interests of its own that might be endangered by too great severity upon the head of Islam.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

It is a revolt of tribes who have never been wholly subdued, and, therefore, never assimilated with the Indian Empire, not a mutiny of the troops under British arms and scattered through all the British holdings.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

If the situation in northwest India were not serious, the British government would not have hurried 20,000 picked men into the Punjab since the first of August. There are now, of British and native regulars, fully that many troops, and they are of all arms, constituting a well-assorted and formidable army. Five thousand more are pushing to the front. It is clearly the British opinion that the small array of tribesmen are the least of the threatening force. The ameer of Afghanistan is the inspirer of the mischief, and he is inspired by agents of the Russian Empire. If the czar's foreign office thought to catch the lion dozing along the foothills of the Himalayas, the mistake has been discovered by this time.

The Evening Star. (Washington, D. C.)

While the British are very strong in India, and have now a better civil and military organization than ever before, an uprising of the natives on fanatical lines would tax the British resources severely. And then there would be the danger of a spread of the disaffection far beyond the ordinary calculations.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It is possible that it is to Constantinople and St. Petersburg that we should turn in order to grasp the significance of the border uprising.

The Kennebec Journal. (Me.)

Fortunately the British have corrected the one supreme mistake which embarrassed them in the days of the mutiny. Englishmen, not orientals, now officer all their troops. Still the English troops there are relatively but a handful to hold in subjection a population of 300,000,000.

AMERICAN WHEELMEN'S MEET.

THE eighteenth national meet of the League of American Wheelmen held in Philadelphia August 4–8 called to that city about 15,000 visitors from all parts of the Union. The function was entirely social, a business session of the league having been held previously. The league, now numbering between 90,000 and 100,000 men and women, is the outgrowth of a small company of wheelmen in Newport, R. I., who organized on May 31, 1880, to secure for their bicycles equal privileges with four-wheeled vehicles. The avowed objects of the league now are, "to promote the general interests of cycling; to ascertain, defend, and protect the rights of wheelmen; to encourage and facilitate touring, to promote the improvement of roads, and to regulate the government of all amateur sports connected with the use of the wheel."

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

In its fight for good roads the league has made splendid progress. All over the country there has been an effort to improve the condition of the highways, guideboards have been erected, and the wheel's place with other vehicles has been acknowledged. In several states of the Union road-books are issued which tell the best routes to take in going by wheel from one place to another. The possessor of a league ticket may obtain a discount for meals or lodging at numerous hotels throughout the country, and he is recognized by foreign bicycle organizations as being worthy of favor. Among candidates for membership the matter of sex doesn't count.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Although the meet was a social function entirely, and that purpose was rigidly kept in view by the entertainers, other and much more substantial good to the entire country is sure to be the outcome. Bicycle riders are earnest advocates of good roads, and the League of American Wheelmen is foremost in the movement. Moreover, the great gathering must have a marked effect on those legislators who have hitherto regarded the wheelmen and their just demands with indifference, and impress them with the power and growing influence of the League of American Wheelmen, and have a tendency to insure in the future prompter attention to its requests.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

If there were any possible doubt that the bicycle has "come to stay" it would be dispelled by such a gathering as that of the League of American Wheelmen at Philadelphia this last week. The spectacle of thousands of men and women from all parts of the continent meeting as representatives of other scores of thousands, and receiving the applications of thousands more for membership among them, is of impressive significance. These people are not, as the early wheelmen may have seemed, and may, indeed, have regarded themselves, mere enthusiasts, cultivating a circumscribed fad. They are earnest, practical folk, considering a well-nigh universal fact. For that is what bicycling has become. It is no longer the sport of the few, but the pleasure or the practical aid of the many.

THE WAR IN CUBA.

GENERAL GOMEZ.
Commander-in-Chief of the Cuban Insurgents.

A VIGOROUS guerrilla warfare in Cuba was kept up by the insurgents all through the rainy season, much to the disadvantage of the unacclimated Spaniards. During the first two weeks of August the insurgents under Maj. Andrés Hernandez, Gen. Baldomero Acosta, and other leaders held Havana in a state of siege, seizing all trains and provisions trying to enter the city, and looting the Havana suburbs. Spanish columns attempting to dislodge them from their strongholds about the city were successfully repulsed. Meanwhile insurgents to the number of 8,000 invaded the Matanzas Province, where the Spanish leader, Captain-General Weyler, was operating, On August 11 Captain-General Weyler was said to be moving back toward Havana, pursued by the armies of Generals Gomez and Carillo. On September 5 the fortified town of Victoria de Las Tunas in Santiago de Cuba surrendered to the insurgents. The war has been kept up in the other provinces also. As previously, the Spanish general has continued his policy of starving the pacificos and reporting frequent victories for the Spaniards. On August 25, 40,000 Spanish soldiers were reported to be in the hospitals in Cuba. On August 30 the Spanish government decided to send 27,000 of its reserves to Cuba and 13,000 to the Philippine Islands.

(Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The new quota of 27,000 men is thrown into a hopeless struggle. At best it will only repair some of the ravages in the Spanish ranks. The patriots who did not quail before 200,000 foes will not be troubled by the added 27,000. If Spain is wise, instead of sending more men to perish in Cuba she will call back those that are there.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

Any "government" that gives up control of Cuba will almost certainly be overturned as a result of such a disaster. The Madrid politicians have an uncomfortable six months before them now.

(Dem.) The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

Injudicious intervention by this government in Spanish politics at this stage would defeat its own purpose by consolidating the parties of Spain in united resistance to what every Spaniard would regard as intolerable intermeddling.

(Ind.) Providence Journal. (R. I.)

We need not accept all the enthusiastic stories from insurgent sources to come to the conclusion that Spain has an impossible task before her.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.).

The enemy [insurgents] which was so despised two years ago is gaining strength daily, and threatening to avenge completely what has been one of the deepest crimes of the century.

GEN. DON VALERIANO WEYLER.
Commander of the Spanish Forces in Cuba.

(Rep.) The Inter Ocean. (Chicago, Ill.)

The failure of Weyler's campaign in the eastern provinces of Cuba is the more significant because in the previous war Weyler was assigned by the commanding general to Santiago.

THE ASCENT OF MT. ST. ELIAS.

To the Italians Prince Luigi of Savoy and his party of mountain climbers belongs the honor of first scaling the American mountain St. Elias. The prince took the precaution to include in his party some Alpine climbers. Setting sail from Seattle, Wash , in June, the expedition landed at Yakutat Bay and thence immediately began the journey inland. The men themselves dragged the sleds on which were loaded their provisions. At the foot of Mt. Newton Glacier they met an American party led by Mr. H. G. Bryant, of Philadelphia, Pa., returning homeward. The Americans had started from Seattle for the summit of Mt. St. Elias three weeks in advance of the Italians, but were obliged to abandon their goal be-

cause of sickness in their party. Proceeding, the prince's party reached the summit of Mt. St. Elias on July 31. At this point they found neither wind nor fog and the thermometer registered 20° below the freezing point. During their stay of two hours they took many photographs from the summit. They also settled the mooted questions of the height and formation of the peak. Its height they report as 18,120 feet and its origin they say is not volcanic, as formerly described.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Many attempts have been made to scale Mt. St. Elias, but until Prince Luigi attacked it all failed. The only one to reach a considerable altitude was Prof. Israel Russell, who succeeded after innumerable perils in climbing approximately 14,500 feet, or fully a mile from the summit. One of the chief obstacles to success is the great covering of snow which extends down from the highest peak to within about 2,000 feet of sea level, and even lower. This fact may afford some idea of the difficulties which Prince Luigi overcame, and which Mr. Bryant and his party seemed to have been overcome by. One great point gained by Prince Luigi's achievement is the probable accurate determination of the height of Mt. St. Elias. This has long been a subject of controversy, and in two hundred years the figures have varied as much as 6,000 feet. As nearly all the measurements were taken either from a distance or low altitudes, this is not surprising. The question to whom the huge mountain belongs is still unsettled, though there can be little cause for doubt that it is within the United States boundary.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Italy's princes are making a stir in the world in these days, and though the count of Turin by his duel may carry off the lion's share of applause among his countrymen, they may well take pride in the prince of Savoy's ascent to the top of Mount St. Elias.

SENATOR JAMES Z. GEORGE, OF MISSISSIPPI.

SENATOR JAMES Z. GEORGE OF MISSISSIPPI.

MISSISSIPPI'S senior senator, James Z. George, died on August 14 at Jackson, Miss., whither he had gone to recruit his health. He was born in Monroe County, Ga., on October 26, 1826, and was but an infant when death deprived him of his father. In 1834 he and his mother moved to Noxubee County, Miss. Two years later they went to Carroll County, which ever since has been his home. In 1847 he married Miss Bettie Young, a society belle of that day. Mr. George fought as a private in the Mexican War and at its close in 1848 supplemented his common school education with the study of law, being admitted soon to the bar at Carrollton. In 1854 and again in 1860 he was elected reporter of the High Court of Errors and Appeals. He is the author of ten volumes of reports of this court and of a work entitled "Digest of the Supreme Court Decisions," published in 1872. As a member of the Mississippi convention of 1861 he voted for and signed the article of secession. At the outbreak of the Civil War he took up arms for the southern cause and by the close of the war had won the rank of general. He then resumed his law practice in Carroll County. He was appointed to the Supreme Court in 1879. Shortly afterward he was elected chief justice. This post he resigned in 1881 to enter the United States Senate. He was reelected to the Senate in 1886 and again for the term ending in March 1899. He remained a secessionist in principle to the day of his death. In the Senate he was the ranking Democratic member of the Committee on Agriculture, of which committee he was chairman during the Fifty-third Congress, and he was a member of the Committee on the Judiciary. Three sons and three daughters survive him. His wife died a month ago.

The Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

The death of Senator George removes one of the landmarks of the Southern Confederacy. He was one of the last of the coterie of lawyers from that section that never accepted the results of the war. He still argued the right of a state to secede, and upon every occasion held to that view tenaciously. He was so radical and set in his opinions that he did not assume the leading place in the Senate to which his talent and long term of service entitled him. Senator George was an authority on constitutional law as he saw it, and his speeches in the Senate were confined almost exclusively to discussion of that phase of subjects. In his death the most charitable thing to be said of him is that he did his duty as he understood it, even though it was combated by the almost united voice of the southern people.

PRESIDENT BORDA OF URUGUAY ASSASSINATED.

URUGUAY'S armed rebellion of several years' duration culminated on August 25 in the assassination of President Borda. The crime took place in Montevideo, at the celebration of the seventy-second anniversary of Uruguay's independence. Two shots were fired and the victim expired within a few minutes, surrounded by his ministers and other statesmen and diplomats. The deed is said to have been committed from political motives. Aside from general excitement no disorders followed, Senor Cuestas, president of the Senate, succeeding temporarily to the presidency.

JUAN BORDA.
Late President of Uruguay.

The Mail and Express. (*New York, N. Y.*)

Of great ability and boundless ambition, and possessed of moral qualities not wholly above suspicion, his influence upon the affairs of Uruguay was never of the best, and his tragic death can hardly be regarded as an irreparable loss to that country.

Republican Standard. (*Bridgeport, Conn.*)

Such occurrences have been common in past years in the South American republics, but more rare of late, and the improvement has been noticeable. The circumstances attending the murder of Borda were particularly sensational in time and place, but hardly any political significance attaches to the fact.

New York Tribune. (*N. Y.*)

It is poor consolation to say that the death of President Borda will probably restore peace to Uruguay. Let it be granted that he was, to a large proportion of the people, an unacceptable chief magistrate; that his removal will obliterate causes of offense and factional barriers, and that it is sometimes expedient that one man perish for the people. Nevertheless, no matter how great may be the apparent gain to Uruguay, it has been purchased at too great a price. Indeed, it might be said that the greater the apparent gain the greater the ultimate evil. For the memory of such gain may in future inspire others to regard this crime as a precedent, to be repeated whenever it seems probable the state will thus be served, and nothing could be worse than the establishment of such an idea.

CANADA'S LAWS FOR THE KLONDIKE MINES.

A CODE of rules for the Yukon gold region was announced by the Canadian government on August 15. The rules read in part: "That upon all gold mined on the claims referred to in the regulation for the government of placer mining along the Yukon River and its tributaries a royalty of ten per cent shall be levied and collected by officers to be appointed for the purpose, provided the amount mined and taken from a single claim does not exceed $500 per week, and in case the amount mined and taken from any single claim exceeds $500 per week there shall be levied and collected a royalty of ten per cent upon the amount so taken out up to $500, and upon the excess or amount taken from any single claim over $500 per week there shall be levied and collected a royalty of twenty per cent, such royalty to form part of the consolidated revenue, and to be accounted for by the officers who collect the same in due course. That any attempt to defraud the crown by withholding any part of the revenue thus provided for by making false statements of the amount taken out may be punished by cancellation of the claim in respect of which fraud or false statements have been committed or made; and that in respect of facts as to such fraud or false statement or non-payment of royalty the decision of the gold commissioner shall be final." Other measures stipulate that alternate claims along the Yukon River and its tributaries shall be reserved for the crown and impose penalties for trespassing on the said claims. The old rules are amended to grant the discoverer of a new mine, creek and river claims 750 feet in length instead of "bar diggings" of the same dimensions.

The Chicago Record. (*Ill.*)

That Canada has a right to levy such a tax is unquestionable. Whether it will be good policy for the government to enforce it strictly may be a matter of doubt. It at least simplifies matters to know that Canada has not drawn any invidious

distinction against American gold seekers, though it must be confessed had the Canadian government followed the laws of the United States as respects mineral lands an outcry would probably have gone up before this that would have led to international complications. The United States' revised statutes, section 2319, reads as follows: "All valuable mineral deposits in lands belonging to the United States, both surveyed and unsurveyed, are hereby declared to be free and open to exploration and purchase, and the lands in which they are found to occupation and purchase by citizens of the United States and those who have declared their intention to become such."

San Francisco Chronicle. (Cal.)

There will surely be a hot time on the Klondike when the Canadian government collects that royalty. Before they are through with it the officials will be apt to realize that Mr. Oliver was right when he said the proceeds wouldn't pay the costs.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Canadian statesmanship could not have devised a plan better calculated to stifle enterprise and retard the development of the Northwest Territory than this greedy scheme to place a load of taxation upon the chief industry of the region at the hour of its birth. Canada's technical right to levy tribute upon the earnings of the Klondike miners is beyond question.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The [tax] experiment would cost a great deal of money, and the probable outcome of it would be a sweeping migration of miners from the Klondike to other placers no less tempting on the American side of the border. The government might as well rescind, also, the order reserving every alternate claim on every placer hereafter discovered. This, again, is one of the proposals that no men personally acquainted with the ways of gold hunters would have ever made. An effort to enforce it would either cause a fight between the government agents and the miners working the reserved claims or else lead to the abandonment of prospecting in Canadian territory.

THE QUEEN'S SPEECH.

No mention of the questions at issue between Great Britain and the United States is to be found in the queen's speech proroguing Parliament on August 6. It is prefaced with the stock announcement of Great Britain's continued friendly relations with the other powers, and, beginning with the eastern war question, says: "There is good ground for believing that all the most important matters in controversy have been adjusted and that in return for an adequate indemnity the territory conquered by Turkey, with a slight modification of the frontier, will be restored to Greece. I have given notice to the king of the Belgians and the German emperor to terminate the treaties of 1862 and 1865, whereby I am prevented from making with my colonies such fiscal arrangements within my empire as seem to me expedient. In consequence of the infraction by the Chinese government of certain stipulations of the convention of 1894, a fresh convention has been concluded, establishing the frontier of Burmah and China more advantageously to my empire and opening the West River of China to European commerce. I have concluded a treaty of commerce and friendship with King Menelik. The presence of representatives of the colonies and India at the ceremonies of the celebration of the sixtieth year of my reign has contributed to the strength of the bond of union in all parts of my empire, and additional proof of the attachment of the colonies to the mother country has been furnished in the fiscal legislation of Canada and the contribution that Cape Colony, following the example of Australasia, has offered for our naval defense." The famine and plague also receive attention, and approval is expressed for the measures taken to enlarge the harbors of Dover and Gibraltar, to strengthen the army and navy, to support schools, to indemnify employees injured while at work, to improve the water facilities in the metropolis, to relieve suffering in the overcrowded parts of Scotland, and "to provide a more efficient and more economical system for the judicial institutions of Ireland."

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

There are two pieces of legislation in the session of the British Parliament just ended which have peculiar significance, even beyond the limits of Great Britain itself. They are the Education Act and the Workingmen's Compensation Act. The Education Act appropriates a considerable amount of the British taxpayers' money ($1,500,000) to help the Episcopalian and Roman Catholic schools to keep up their rivalry with the board schools, which are purely unsectarian. The trend in Great Britain of recent years, since Gladstone disestablished the "alien church" of Ireland, has been toward the overthrow of all state religious establishments; but this subsidization of sectarianism of which Parliament at the recent session was guilty, and which the British people have tolerated, can have but one tendency—to rivet the yoke of a state religion still more firmly on the British neck and to postpone the prospect of disestablishment indefinitely. The enactment of the Workingmen's Compensation Law by a Conservative government,

all of whose traditions are violated in the principle of the law, and especially by the very same lot of statesmen who, in opposition but four years ago, denounced the principle even when embodied in a much less offensive form as "confiscation," are a peculiar commentary on the consistency of political parties. Gladstone would not have dared propose such a radical measure, while Salisbury's government not only proposes but passes it.

The Evening Post. (Chicago, Ill.)

The news from the ambassadors treating with the sultan is not quite so reassuring as the queen implies. Turkey always manages to discover new difficulties and never yields a point without a mental reservation. Hardly satisfactory are the paragraphs regarding the situation in India. There is not a hint about the danger of a serious outbreak or the severe repression measures undertaken or projected. Nor are the statements concerning the disappearance of the plague and restriction of the area of distress borne out by competent observers writing from the scene of the troubles. Perhaps it is not surprising that no regret is expressed at the failure of the Anglo-American arbitration treaty, but the silence upon the Behring Sea controversy is not without some significance. Is the Salisbury assent to the proposed conference so qualified and limited as to be shorn of all promise of results? Had it really involved an agreement to revise the rules for the protection of the seals the queen's speech would scarcely have passed it over. The political situation in England is dull and uninteresting. No wonder the queen's speech reflects this complexion of affairs.

AUSTRALIA'S SPIRIT.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

TRISTRAM DUNMAUGH, a rich Australian of English parentage, was at a Washington hotel recently. This Australian expressed some rather novel ideas while here. He is a middle-aged man who looks, talks, and acts like an American. Some Americans whom he met asked him about this.

"We're not English out in Australia any more than you people in the States are," he replied. "We're Australians just as much as you are Americans. The spirit of nationality is already exceedingly powerful throughout Australia. There has not as yet been organized any united separatist party, but there will be within the next five years, and perhaps in less time. The seed was long since sown, and it has a very fertile soil in which to sprout. Although the hand with which England governs Australia through the colonial government is of the most velvety order, I think there is a preponderating sentiment all over the Continent that no particular reason any longer exists for Great Britain to concern itself governmentally with Australia at all. Australia is now a great deal better fitted to manage her own affairs than the thirteen States were when they gave England that famous notice—which document, by the way, we Australians are pretty familiar with. Australia, of course, has no such grievances against England as the thirteen States had—no particular grievance at all, for the matter of that. But a very large and high-grade element of the Australian population (composed, too, for the most part of people, like myself, of English descent) began to chafe as long as twenty years ago over the absurdity that their enormous continent should accept any sort of governmental regulation whatsoever at the hands of a little country at the other end of the world, which they were, and still are, willing to respect as an ancestor, but not as master. A great majority of Australians did not approve of the Australian premier's cock-sure phrases delivered at the Chamberlain dinner, and those who did not read this misrepresentation in silence read it with laughter. He simply did not represent a great majority of the Australian people, nor come within an ocean's width of voicing their ideas.

"I don't know how I can state the matter more briefly than by saying that even the most conservative people of Australia are looking, not without hope, for the eventual establishment in Australia of a government precisely like that of the republic of the United States in every essential feature. The temper of the Australian people is republican. I have observed for many years past the gradual diminution in volume of the chorused 'God Save the Queen' at the Australian theaters, and the singers of 'Rule Britannia' in Australia nowadays are generally young fellows just out from England, perhaps three parts drunk. Australians take a very great interest in American affairs. In my opinion one of the things of the future (and perhaps not the very distant future, either) is first the Australian republic and then a sort of friendly alliance of the Australian republic with the republic of the United States. If the first five years of the century soon to begin do not witness at least the initial steps toward the formation of an Australian republic, I have gauged very improperly the political sentiment of the people among whom I have spent my entire life." You have!

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

August 7. Judge Simonton, of South Carolina, decides that the measure for "original" packages in the Dispensary Law applies to bottles of liquor loosely packed in cars.——Judge Tuley, of Chicago, Ill., decides against the validity of the city ordinance taxing bicycles.

August 8. A convention of the National Christian Alliance is held in Cleveland, O.

August 12. The officers elected for the Northern Pacific Railroad Company are C. S. Mellen, president, and Dan S. Lamont, vice-president.

August 14. E. A. Hitchcock, of St. Louis, Mo., named by President McKinley for minister to Russia, accepts the position.

August 16. The United States government receives formal proposals from the Canadian government for establishing telegraphic communication with the Klondike region.

August 17. The American Bankers' Association convenes in Detroit, Mich.——A meeting of the Society of American Florists takes place in Providence, R. I.——The American Association of Obstetricians and Gynecologists hold a convention at Niagara Falls.

August 18. S. R. Calloway is made president of the Lake Shore and Southern Railroad.

August 23. A syndicate of United States capitalists secures from the Honduras government important concessions including the collection of duties and the operation of railroads, and in return undertakes to pay off the national debt of Honduras.

August 25. The American Bar Association holds its twentieth annual convention in Cleveland, O. ——The Universal Peace Union meets in Mystic, Conn.

August 31. The board of naval officers appointed by the acting secretary of the navy early in August to investigate the question of a government armor plant finishes its inspections in Chicago, Ill.

September 3. Seth Low at Northeast Harbor, Me., receives and accepts the nomination by the New York Citizens' Union for mayor of Greater New York.

FOREIGN.

August 7. The International Arbitration Conference begins its session in Brussels, Belgium.

August 9. Several thousand Armenians from Persia make a raid into Asia Minor, killing two hundred persons at Van.——A detachment of the Anglo-Egyptian expedition captures Abu Hamid, located on the Upper Nile.——Chili's cabinet resigns.

August 11. Oporto, Portugal, is placed under martial law.

August 15. A duel with swords is fought at Paris by Prince Henri of Orleans (French) and the Count of Turin, who is a nephew of King Humbert of Italy. The Italian comes off victor.——Nearly a thousand persons embark from Victoria, B. C., for the Klondike gold-fields.

August 16. An antarctic expedition commanded by Capt. Adrien de Gerlache sets sail from Antwerp, Belgium.

August 17. The peace negotiations in the Turko-Russian War case are blocked by England's objecting to Turkish occupation of Thessaly pending a partial payment of the war indemnity.

August 18. Twenty Polish students in St. Petersburg, Russia, are charged with nihilism and transported to Siberia.

August 20. Michele Angiolillo, convicted of shooting and killing Spain's premier, Senor Canovas del Castillo, is garroted at Vergara, Spain.

August 22. Gold seekers at Dyea, Alaska, are reported to be suffering.

August 25. In addressing the Volksraad of the Transvaal Republic, President Krüger asserts that England has no right of suzerainty over the Transvaal.

August 27. The Korean government is reported to have ceded to Russia, Japan consenting, an island near Fusan to be used for a coaling station.

August 30. A commercial treaty between Japan and Portugal is signed.——Work on the Chinese Eastern Railroad is begun on Chinese ground.

September 1. A special session of the Hawaiian Senate is called for September 6, to allow that body time for consideration on the annexation treaty before action thereon is taken by the United States Congress.——The British secretary of state for India suspends for ten weeks the sale of bills of exchange on Calcutta, Bombay, and Madras.

September 2. General Ignacio Andrade, a Liberal, is elected president of Venezuela.

NECROLOGY.

August 10. Dr. How, the bishop of Wakefield, England.

August 17. David G. Swaim, U. S. A., retired, judge advocate general.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR OCTOBER.

First Week (ending October 8).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter I.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter I.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Imperial Germany and Imperial Rome."
Sunday Reading for October 3.

Second Week (ending October 15).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter II.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter II.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Awheel in Germany."
"The Building of the German Empire."
Sunday Reading for October 10.

Third Week (ending October 22).

"Imperial Germany." Chapters III. and IV.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapters III. and IV.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Luther's Influence on Literature."
"'Fake' Businesses."
Sunday Reading for October 17.

Fourth Week (ending October 29).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter V.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapters V. and VI.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Colors of Autumn in Leaf and Flower."
Sunday Reading for October 24.

FOR NOVEMBER.

First Week (ending November 5).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter VI.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter VII.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Goethe: His Life and Work."
Sunday Reading for October 31.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR OCTOBER.

First Week.

1. Welcome address by the leader.
2. Enrolling of new members.
3. Roll Call.
4. The Lesson.
5. Essay—Leuthen and Jena.
6. Discussion—The results of competition.
7. A Talk—The effect of gold discoveries on the economic development of a country.*

Second Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. Biographical Sketch—Faraday.
3. Essay—German music and musicians.
4. Essay—German and American schools.
5. Table Talk—India and her troubles.*

Third Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. General Discussion—The social position of women wage-earners.
3. A Talk—Housing the poor. See "The Tenement-House Reform in New York City" in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September.
4. Book Review—"Marm Lisa," by Kate Douglas Wiggin.
5. Biographical Sketch—Martin Luther.

Fourth Week.

William I. Memorial Day—October 25.

Thrice noble is the man who of himself is king.

1. Biographical Sketch—William I. of Germany.
2. A Talk—The battle of Sedan.
3. Essay—The Schleswig-Holstein controversy.
4. A Paper—The attitude of Emperor William I. toward the workingmen.
5. A Talk—German unity.

FOR NOVEMBER.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. Literary Study—Goethe's "Faust."
3. Biographical Sketch—Herbert Spencer.
4. A Paper—The power of personal will in economic progress.
5. General Conversation—The news of the week.

FOR the benefit of the new circles a few words concerning the purpose of this department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN may be necessary.

In the *Outline of Required Reading* the lesson for each week is assigned and by following closely this assignment each reader will find it an easy task to complete the year's work.

The *Suggestive Programs* are just what the name implies—suggestions for the guidance of circle work, and they may be used as printed, altered to meet the special needs of a circle, or rejected entirely. They follow lines suggested by the Required Reading, and though "The Lesson" may not always appear in each program it should be understood and should form a prominent feature of every meeting.

The *C. L. S. C. Notes and Word Studies*, another

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* *See Current History and Opinion*

important division of this department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN, are designed to remove the difficulties of the course of reading.

The *Questions and Answers* should be carefully studied that the important thoughts of the text-books may become fixed in the memory.

The Question Table is designed to spur the reader to a more thorough investigation of the subjects treated in the Required Reading. One set of these questions will be in line with the subjects in the department of *Current History and Opinion*.

In every organization it is always inspiring to know what the colaborers are doing. This will be found in the *C. L. S. C. Classes* and *Local Circles*, in which are published the reports of C. L. S. C. work being done in the different parts of the world.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

THE following table explains some of the signs used in the pronunciation of words in this department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

K indicates the German *ch*, which has a guttural sound similar to a strongly aspirated *h*.

G indicates a sound similar to the German *ch*.

N indicates the French nasal sound, which is similar to the German *ng*.

ō represents a sound similar to *e* in her; to utter the sound place the lips in position for saying ō and pronounce ē.

ü represents the French *u*; to give the sound of ü, when the lips are in position to utter oo, pronounce ē without changing the position of the lips.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

P. 16. "Börne" [bēr'ne]. A German satirist and an author of political literature, born in 1786. He died in Paris in 1837.

P. 17. "Leuthen" [loi'ten]. The town where the Prussians under Frederick the Great defeated the Austrians. It is in the Prussian province of Silesia, about ten miles west of Breslau.

P. 17. "Rossbach." A town in the province of Saxony, Prussia, where the Prussians defeated the French in 1757.

P. 17. "Jena" [yā'nä]. A city about forty-five miles southwest of Leipsic, where the French under Napoleon defeated the Prussians in 1806.

P. 21. "Kyffhäuser" [kif'hoi-zer]. The name of a mountain and castle a few miles northwest of Weimar.

P. 24. "Cavour" [kä-voor']. An Italian statesman who brought about the unification of Italy.

P. 27. "Windhorst" or Windthorst [vint'horst]. A prominent German statesman and one of the principal opponents of Bismarck.

P. 31. "Sadowa" [sä-dō'vä]. A small town in Bohemia near which was fought a decisive battle of the Seven Weeks' War, sometimes called the battle of Königgrätz.——"Sedan." A fortified town in France where the Germans won a victory over the French in 1870.

P. 32. "Boulanger" [boo-lon-zhā']. A soldier in the French army and a noted politician. He died in 1891.

P. 33. "Bounce." Exaggerated boasting; bluster, swagger.

P. 33. "Ignatieff" [ig-nä'tyef]. A Russian diplomat born in 1832.

P. 35. "Thiers" [tyār]. A French historian and an eminent statesman. He died in 1877.

P. 37. "Ikaros." According to Greek mythology, the son of Dædalus, whom the father had fitted out with wings, fastened on with wax, that he might escape from Crete. Flying too near the sun, the wax melted and Ikaros dropped into the sea called from this legend the Icarian Sea.

P. 38. "Czermak" [cher'mäk].

P. 39. "Salicylic" [sal-i-sil'ik]. Salicylic acid is used as an antiseptic.

P. 39. "Virchow" [fēr'KŌ].——"Langenback" [läng'en-bek].——"Billroth" [bil'rōt].——"Würzburg" [vürts'bŌŌrG].

P. 39. "Ranke" [rän'ke].

P. 44. "Tieck" [tēk]. He died in 1853.——"Schlegel" [shlā'gel]. The Schlegels lived in the last quarter of the eighteenth and the first half of the nineteenth century.——"Voss" [fos].

P. 45. "Treitschke" [trītsh'ke]. He was born at Dresden in 1834.

P. 46. "Heine" [hi'ne]. A poet and critic born in 1797.——"Schopenhauer" [shō'pen-hou-er]. A philosopher who expounded pessimism. He died in 1860.——"David Strauss," born in 1808, was an author of theological and philosophical works.——"Scherr" [sher], who died in 1886, was an historian.

P. 46. "Grand Cross," etc. Originally a military order in Great Britain, so called, it is said, because at the coronation of Henry IV. forty-six esquires were knighted after they had bathed during the night preceding "to signify a purification from all previous stain." After the time of Charles II. the order was discontinued but revived by George I. In 1815 the order was extended to include civilians and one of the classes composing the order is the military and the civil knights grand crosses, the G. C. B.

P. 46. "Spielhagen" [spēl'hā-gen]. He was born in 1829.——"Heyse" [hī'ze] was born in 1830.

P. 47. "Ebers" [ā'bers]. He was born at Berlin in 1837.

P. 49. "Blumenthal" [bloo'men-täl].——"Schönthan" [shēn'tän].

P. 52. "Nelson's message," etc. "England expects every man to do his duty."

P. 54. "Gneisenau" [gnī'ze-nou].

P. 58. "Niederwald" [nē'der-väld]. An elevated portion of the Taunus in Prussia, opposite Bingen and near the Rhine River, rising to a height of about 1080 feet above the sea-level. A national monument erected here commemorates the German victory over the French and the establishment of the New German Empire.

P. 59. "Gutzkow" [gōōts'kō] died in 1878.

P. 62. "Bayreuth" [bī'roit]. The capital of one of the provinces of Bavaria. It is famous for its musical festivals.

P. 65. "Holbein" [hol'bīn]. The name of two noted German painters. Hans Holbein (about 1460–1524) created historical paintings, and his son, also called Hans, was an adept in wood-engraving as well as historical painting.——"Dürer" (1471–1528) was an engraver and painter. He illustrated the Revelation of St. John in a series of wood-cuts which appeared in 1498.

P. 67. "Friedrichsruh" [frēd'rĭks-roo]. Bismarck's residence, situated about seventeen miles southeast of Hamburg.

P. 78. "Canniness." From the Scotch word canny, meaning careful in action or motion; gentle shrewdness, caution.

P. 79. "Guelphs" [gwelfs]. The name of a powerful German family to which the present royal family of England trace their descent.

P. 80. "Landgrave." A German title of nobility corresponding to the English title of earl.

P. 82. "Fehrbellin" [fār-bel-lēn']. A small town a few miles northwest of Berlin where the Prussians defeated the Swedes in 1675.

P. 83. "The Palatinate." Formerly a part of the Holy Roman Empire, the territory of which is now included in that of Bavaria, Baden, Hesse, and Prussia. "The name is retained as a general geographical designation and officially as a name of two Bavarian districts."

P. 84. "*Bon voyage.*" A French expression meaning, a pleasant journey to you.

P. 86. "Machiavelli" [mak-i-a-vel'li]. An Italian author and statesman born in 1469. Much opprobrium has been heaped upon his name on account of the questionable political principles which he set forth in his celebrated work "The Prince."

P. 88. "*Lieber.*" Dear.

P. 91. "Bundesrath" [boon'des-rät]. See "Appendix," page 313.——"Reichstag" [German pronunciation, rĪKs'taK]. See "Appendix," page 313.

B. 96. "Medici" [med'ē-chē or mā'dē-chē. A celebrated Italian family which once ruled in Florence and Tuscany. Among its members were a large number of statesmen. As early as 1378 this family began to take an active part in historical events.

P. 114. "Pomeranian." An inhabitant of Pomerania, a province of Prussia bordering on the Baltic Sea. Agriculture, coasting and foreign commerce, and the rearing of live stock are the principal occupations of the people.

P. 121. "Bureaucracy" [bu-rŏ'kra-sy]. A form of government the power of which is vested in a large number of administrative bureaus.

P. 126. "Wilhelmshafen" [vil'helms-hä-fen]. Germany's principal naval station on the North Sea.

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

P. 12. "Meissonier [mā-so-nyā']. A noted French artist of this century. He painted between 450 and 500 genre-pictures, about one sixth of which number are owned by Americans.——"Bouguereau" [boog-rŏ']. A famous French artist born in 1825.

P. 13. "Palissy" [pä-lē-sē']. A potter and enameler, born in France about 1510. He was also an investigator of chemical action. He worked sixteen years before he succeeded in perfecting the ware which bears his name, a kind of pottery having a remarkably beautiful glaze with the ornamentation in high relief.——"Faraday." A noted physicist and chemist of England. He is famous for his discoveries in the fields of magnetism and electricity.

P. 18. "Pestalozzi" [pes-tä-lot'sē]. A Swiss reformer of methods of education.——"Wichern." A philanthropist of Germany. He organized institutions for the reformation and education of vagrant children and through his influence the system of prisons and reformatories in Germany was greatly improved.

P. 31. "Prophylactic [prŏf-ĭ-lăk'tĭk]. From a Greek word meaning to guard against; preventive.

P. 39. "*Au fait.*" A French phrase meaning well instructed; up to the mark.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"AWHEEL IN GERMANY."

1. "*Turnverein.*" From *turnen*, to practice gymnastics and *Verein* an association; an association organized for the practice of gymnastics.

2. "All' Heil," "Guten Tag." Good-day.

3. "*Persona non grata.*" Latin, meaning a person not agreeable.

4. "Bonifaces." Innkeepers, so called probably from a landlord in Farquhar's "Beaux' Stratagem."

5. "Salzkammergut" [sälts'käm-mer-goot]. A section of upper Austria which for its fine lakes and beautiful natural scenery is sometimes denominated "the Austrian Switzerland." Salt is produced at this place in large quantities.

"LUTHER'S INFLUENCE ON LITERATURE."

1. "Ein' feste Burg." The entire line is "Ein' feste Burg ist unser Gott," which means "A strong fortress is our God."

2. "Donatus." Ælius Donatus, a grammarian and commentator of the fourth century, was the author of several treatises which made quite a complete course in Latin grammar. During the Middle Ages his books were used as text-books in the schools. The elementary works on Latin grammar to the present day are founded on the Latin grammar of Donatus. One of the first books printed by means of letters cut on wooden blocks was Donatus, copies of which are considered great bibliographical curiosities.——"Alexander." Alexander of Ville Dieu. A noted grammarian of the thirteenth century who composed a grammar in verse which was used as a school-book.

3. "Serbonian bogs." A large morass in Egypt surrounded by hills of sand which the wind carried into the bog, making a very treacherous footing. It is said that armies attempting to cross the bog have been swallowed up; hence "Serbonian bog" has come to mean a condition of affairs from which one can extricate himself only with great difficulty.

4. "Erasmus" [e-raz'mus]. A satirist and theological writer born in Rotterdam in 1465.

5. "Cervantes" [ser-van'tēz]. A Spanish novelist born in 1547.——"Calderon." A Spanish dramatist and poet of the seventeenth century——"Vega" [vā'gä]. A dramatist of Spain who died in 1635.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

1. Q. What German characteristic noticed by Tacitus was remarked upon by Bismarck? A. An incapacity for united action.

2. Q. What allied trait does history record? A. An unreadiness for action of any decisive kind.

3. Q. To what does Bismarck attribute the qualities that made possible Prussia's hegemony of to-day? A. To the admixture of Slavonic blood in the old Prussian provinces.

4. Q. In what do the inhabitants of the old provinces of Prussia resemble the French more than do those of any other part of Germany? A. In unity of patriotism and power of recovery.

5. Q. Who have been the bitterest censors of the German character? A. The eminent Germans themselves.

6. Q. What was the result to Germany of the Reformation? A. It led to deepest political degradation—the "Thirty Years' War"—out of which it emerged with a decreased population and with a loss of national wealth.

7. Q. In what class of people was the idea of unity most vigorously maintained? A. In the middle class.

8. Q. What has been Germany's political curse? A. The petty but honest feeling of narrow state loyalty.

9. Q. With what spirit has German unity had to contend? A. The spirit of envy and distrust alternating with indifference.

10. Q. What explanation is offered for the fact that Germans are ashamed of their nationality? A. The national tendency to objectiveness.

11. Q. What peculiar characteristic is not a national German failing? A. Chauvinism.

12. Q. What is at the root of some of the best manifestations of German character? A. The restless striving after an often unattainable ideal.

13. Q. How does German idealism affect science? A. It places it on so high a pedestal that money-making by its votaries is looked upon as almost degrading.

14. Q. Of what specialty can German literature boast? A. The translation of the masterpieces of foreign literature into German.

15. Q. What class of writers have helped much to remove the "ponderosity" from German letters? A. Essayists.

16. Q. Who is the most gifted and sterling of all German writers of fiction of our time? A. Gustav Freytag.

17. Q. What remains to-day the key-note of German intellectual and ethical life? A. Kant's dictum of the categorical imperative, the call of duty on us all to regulate our race toward the unattainable.

18. Q. In what has German idealism counted its saddest failures? A. In politics.

19. Q. In what is an influence distinctly akin to that of Greece traceable? A. In German thought, in literature, in the cultivation of the fine arts, and in the general spiritual acceptation of life.

20. Q. In what are the best instincts of the German people embodied? A. In their songs.

21. Q. What is one of the highest and most precious forms of music in Germany? A. The *Volkslied.*

22. Q. What music has become distinctly national? A. The operas of Wagner.

23. Q. What is one result of Germany's extended university system? A. It produces an

annually increasing contingent of intellectual proletariat.

24. Q. What put an end to amateur educationalism as a means of making a fortune? A. The rigid Prussian educational test requirements for military service.

25. Q. What criticism is made on the training in German schools? A. It develops the brain at the expense of the physique, and without enough attention to character.

26. Q. In what lies the secret of the sovereign's power in Prussia? A. In his recognition of the fact that a nation does not consist of a small minority of privileged persons, but rather that the meanest and the humblest have an equal claim on the care and solicitude of the sovereign.

27. Q. How did Europe come to regard Emperor William I.? A. As the guardian of the peace of the world.

28. Q. Next to the Hohenzollerns, who of the royal princes have done most for the cause of German unity? A. The ruling grand duke of Baden and King Albert of Saxony.

29. Q. Judging by polling results, who constitute the most earnest political party in Germany? A. The Social Democrats.

30. Q. What body has proved to be an excellent guardian of the national interests? A. The Bundesrath.

31. Q. What is the one failing of paternal government in Germany? A. Its humanitarianism.

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

1. Q. What are the three fairly distinct types of voluntary organizations which embody the progressive and creative activity of the social spirit? A. Mutual benefit societies, societies of public spirit, and charitable societies.

2. Q. If parental duty is neglected who must supply the defect? A. The neighborhood, the church, and the state.

3. Q. In what is the social standard expressed? A. In state laws, church discipline, maxims, and customs.

4. Q. What do our usages and laws require parents and children to do? A. Parents to fulfil the duties of support and education for citizenship; children to care for parents in the helplessness of old age; and exacts purity, modesty, and chastity of all.

5. Q. Of whom must each group of human beings have help? A. Of the neighborhood, the church, the school, and the legal organization.

6. Q. When does the economic activity of the household begin? A. When the goods are ready for consumption.

7. Q. What are some of the advantages of keeping household accounts? A. It fosters thrift, makes possible a wiser distribution of resources, enables social students to make accurate statistical calculations as to real wages, the cost of living, and the actual effects of our industrial system on the people.

8. Q. With whom ought social progress to begin? A. With those who have the wealth to command the finest privileges.

9. Q. Why should great care be taken to beautify a dwelling and its surroundings? A. Because they constantly act upon the occupant's imagination and determine its contents.

10. Q. Upon what ought religious people to concentrate associated effort during the next generation? A. The propagation of domestic religion.

11. Q. What has been one result of the introduction of steam-power and machinery? A. It has increased the number of girls and women employed in offices, stores, and mills.

12. Q. For what purpose were clubs formed for wage-earning women? A. To mitigate the peril and the suffering of this class of people.

13. Q. What English institution of wide range of usefulness has been established in the United States? A. The Girls' Friendly Society.

14. Q. What is the object of the Consumers' League? A. To ameliorate the condition of the women and children employed in the retail mercantile houses of New York City.

15. Q. What are the fundamental principles of the Working Girls' Societies? A. Cooperation, self-support, and self-government.

16. Q. Of what is the Working Women's Social Club, of New York, an illustration? A. Of the cooperative method of providing a home for unmarried women.

17. Q. What is the general and normal tendency of these associations? A. To fit girls for domestic life.

18. Q. What relation do moral character and external conditions of health bear to each other? A. They are in reciprocal relation, they act and react upon each other as causes.

19. Q. With what problem is that of housing the people closely connected? A. That of cheap and convenient transit.

20. Q. How can the city tenement-houses be improved? A. By organizing stock companies for the purpose of building model tenement-houses which can be rented at a moderate rate.

21. Q. What example of such a building association is given? A. The City and Suburban Homes Company of New York.

22. Q. What improvement is suggested for agricultural districts? A. The grouping of farm-houses in villages around schools and churches.

23. Q. What does Professor Gould's report

show to be important agents in sanitary reform? A. Voluntary associations of citizens.

24. Q. What is necessary to permanent success in sanitary reforms? A. The hearty cooperation of the reformer with the constituted authorities.

25. Q. In what must the foundation of national health be laid? A. In the teaching of physiology and hygiene in the public schools and by extension methods among adults.

26. Q. For the highest success in resisting disease on whom must we depend? A. On engineers, boards of health, and sanitary police.

27. Q. What is the testimony of experts in regard to the expense of road improvements? A. That the improvement of country roads may, by suitable methods, be made to pay, and that without undue financial strain.

28. Q. Where may a state road be justly constructed on the basis of a state tax? A. Where the general interest is far more important than the local interest.

29. Q. What interests besides those of trade does a system of communication serve? A. The interests of intelligence, art, and religion.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—I.

1. What is the chief authority concerning the condition of ancient Germany?
2. Whom do the Germans regard as their common forefather?
3. With what German tribes did the Romans first come in contact?
4. By whom was ancient Germany nominally subjected?
5. By what battle were the liberty and independence of the German race established?
6. By whom was Germany liberated from Roman dominion?
7. Who secured the supremacy of Germany in the Middle Ages.
8. During the reign of Sigismund what was the principal event?
9. What dynasty represents the most brilliant period of German history in the Middle Ages?
10. By what election was the house of Hapsburg brought to the German throne?

GERMAN LITERATURE.—I.

1. What is the greatest monument of early German literature?
2. When and by whom was it written?
3. What famous German composer has founded a musical drama on this epic?
4. For what valuable translation is Ulphilas famous?
5. Why is such importance attached to the work?
6. When was the poem "Gudrun" written?
7. To what Greek poem is it likened?
8. Who were the minnesingers?
9. What effect had they upon the German people?
10. What class of poets succeeded the minnesingers in the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries?

NATURE STUDIES.—I.

1. What do plants take from the air?
2. Of what is this matter composed?
3. What is the function of the plant in the economy of nature?
4. Which part of the plant performs this function?
5. What was probably the form of the earliest plants?
6. What is the simplest form of reproduction in plant life?
7. Of what biological law is this the basis?
8. From what source does the greater part of a plant's nourishment come?
9. What name has been given to the green coloring matter in plants?
10. What part of a plant has been likened to the brain of an animal?

CURRENT EVENTS.—I.

1. According to the census of 1890 what is the population of Alaska?
2. According to the same report how many distinct localities, such as settlements, stations, villages, etc., were there in Alaska?
3. When was Alaska made a civil and judicial district, and what laws were extended to it?
4. Where is the boundary agreed on in the purchase of Alaska defined?
5. What is that boundary?
6. What is the average density of population in British India?
7. How is India governed?
8. Of how many corps does the army of India consist, and by whom are they commanded?
9. Who has been governor-general of India since 1893?
10. How and for how long a term is the president of Uruguay elected?

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The class at Chautauqua developed a goodly amount of enthusiasm; they met frequently, grew more and more friendly and social, received an inspiring talk from the chancellor, and are going back to their homes ready to form circles and conquer new fields for Chautauqua.

The Class of '93, according to custom, invited the 1901's to become sharers of their room in Alumni Hall, and the class gladly accepted this opportunity to secure an abiding-place. As the '93's had paid their proportion for the erection of the building, the 1901's cheerfully took up their share of helping to finish it on the interior. One hundred and fifty dollars was raised amid much enthusiasm, and various plans are rife for the making of the class-room a thing of beauty. Many new classmates may like to share in this pleasure and any such may send their contributions to the treasurer.

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First Vice President—Mrs. Jane Mead, Corry, Pa.

Second Vice President—Mrs. J. L. Hurlbut, New York, N. Y.

District Vice Presidents—Mrs. J. H. Vincent, Topeka, Kan.; Rev. Thomas Cardis, Western New York; Mrs. G. E. W. Young, Northern New York; Mrs. J. H. Fryer, Canada; Miss Maud G. Hoxsie, Tennessee; J. T. Barnes, New Jersey; Mrs. Frank Beard, Illinois; Miss Emeline Rosborough, South Carolina; Miss Grace Sherwood, Ohio; Miss M. E. F. Eaton, Connecticut.

Secretary—Miss Lilian B. Clarke, Andover, N. Y.

Treasurer and Trustee—Mr. W. J. Booth, Titusville, Pa.

CLASS FLOWER—CARNATION.

CLASS OF 1891.—"THE OLYMPIANS."

"So run that ye may obtain."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. H. R. Palmer, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—Rev. J. S. Ostrander, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Rev. J. M. Durrell, Tilton, N. H.; Joseph H. Fryer, Galt, Can.; Mrs. L. E. Hawley, Buffalo, N. Y.; Miss Mary Chapman, Concord, N. C.; Mrs. Harriet Buel, Buffalo, N. Y.; Mrs. Mary Barkdull, Sidney, O.; Mrs. William Breeden, Santa Fé, N. Mex.; Mrs. J. S. Ostrander, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. George T. Guernsey, Independence, Kan.; Miss C. L. Sargeant, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. E. C. Janes, Randolph, N. Y.

Assistant Secretary—Mrs. G. A. Foster, Evanston, Ill.

Treasurer and Trustee—W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.

Historian—Miss M. A. Daniels, Willimantic, Conn.

CLASS FLOWERS—LAUREL AND WHITE ROSE.

CLASS OF 1890.—"THE PIERIANS."

"Redeeming the time."

OFFICERS.

President—Prof. D. A. McClenahan, D.D., Allegheny, Pa.

First Vice President—Z. L. White, Columbus, O.

Second Vice President—P. C. Houston, Jamestown, N. Y.

Secretary—Mrs. A. M. Martin, Allegheny, Pa.

Treasurer—Mrs. Z. L. White, Columbus, O.

Class Trustee—Rev. Dr. H. B. Waterman, Chicago, Ill.

CLASS FLOWER—TUBE ROSE.

CLASS OF 1889.—"THE ARGONAUTS."

"Knowledge unused for the good of others is more vain than unused gold."

OFFICERS.

President—W. A. Hutchison, D.D., Jackson, O.

Vice Presidents—Miss Laura A. Shotwell, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Mrs. Caroline Leach, Louisville, Ky.; Mrs. B. T. Smelzer, Albany, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Annis R. Wells, 83 Lexington Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.

Treasurer—O. A. Allen, Buffalo, N. Y.

Class Trustee—Rev. S. Mills Day, Honeoye, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—DAISY.

THE Class of '89 was well represented at Chautauqua. Several business and social meetings were held, and much interest was shown in the subject of furnishing the classroom. Those present each contributed a cup, saucer and plate as a beginning toward a supply of china. Will those who come to Chautauqua next season bear in mind the fact that something of this kind will be very acceptable? A china closet, in which these may be kept, is much desired, and voluntary offerings for this purpose may be sent to the secretary of the class. Our new roommates in the Union Class Building, the Class of 1897, were welcomed on the afternoon of August 16. The committee on decoration had transformed the

room into a veritable bower, by means of evergreens and flowers. Felicitous speeches were made by Dr. Hutchison and Judge Noyes, the two class presidents; tea and cake were served, and the hour proved most delightful to all. Let all '89's who find it possible come to Chautauqua next summer and share in these pleasant reunions.

CLASS OF 1888.—"THE PLYMOUTH ROCK."

"Let us be seen by our deeds."

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. A. E. Dunning, D.D., Boston, Mass.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. George B. McCabe, Toledo, O.; S. C. Johnson, Racine, Wis.; W. S. Wight, Lakewood, O.; Mrs. J. Watson Selvage, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Rev. L. A. Stevens, D. D., Buffalo, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Belle Douglass, Syracuse, N. Y.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—Russell L. Hall, New Canaan, Conn.

Historian—Miss Robertine Brown, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Class Chronicler—Mrs. A. C. Teller, Brooklyn, N. Y.

CLASS COLOR—GRAY.

CLASS FLOWER—GERANIUM.

CLASS OF 1887.—"THE PANSIES."

"Neglect not the gift that is in thee."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Frank Russell, Bridgeport, Conn.

First Vice President—James H. Taft, Brooklyn, N. Y.

Second Vice President—Rev. J. R. Alden, D.D., Cambridge, Mass.

Third Vice President—Mrs. H. L. McChesney, Rochester, N. Y.

Eastern Secretary—W. G. Lightfoot, Canandaigua, N. Y.

Western Secretary—Rev. Rollin Marquiss, Sedalia, Mo.

Canadian Secretary—W. B. Wickins, Brantford, Can.

Southern Secretary—Rev. H. R. Blaisdell, Covington, Ky.

Treasurer and Class Trustee—Rev. Frank Russell, D.D., Bridgeport, Conn.

CLASS FLOWER—PANSY.

THE decennial of the Class of '87 also added a special interest to Recognition Day week, for the "Pansies" hold the proud record of being the largest class ever graduated in the C. L. S. C. and their influence is felt as a power in many ways. The celebration of the decennial took place on Monday evening, August 16, in the banquet room of Alumni Hall, which was decorated with boughs of pine, oak, and beech and brightened with the soft radiance of many lights. Dr. Frank Russell, who has been president of the class for thirteen years, received, with other members of the committee, and music and brief greetings and the presence of guests representing many C. L. S. C. classes made the evening a delightful one. The chief feature of the occasion was the presentation to Bishop Vincent by the class of a decennial offering of one hundred dollars, to be used for the new Hall of the Christ. Many members of the class joined in the celebration and renewed most happily the associations of other years. In this connection mention should be made of another loyal little group of '87's at the Des Moines Assembly who, unable to attend the mother Chautauqua, rallied their forces, gathered their friends about them, prepared an attractive program, and showed their loyalty to Chautauqua by a decennial offering of nearly ten dollars toward a Hall of Philosophy for the Des Moines Chautauqua.

CLASS OF 1886—"THE PROGRESSIVES."

"We study for light to bless with light."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. Luella Knight, St. Louis, Mo.

Vice Presidents—Miss Sarah M. Soule, Oneonta, N. Y.; Rev. R. S. Pardington, Brooklyn, N. Y.; Miss Belle Cummings, Wellsville, N. Y.; Mrs. William Schnur, Warren, Pa.; Mrs. A. H. Roberts, Baltimore, Md.; Miss Mary W. Martin, New York, N. Y.; Miss C. A. Davenport, Lockport, N. Y.; Mrs. Estella Broomhull, Troy, O.

Secretary—Mrs. R. E. Burrows, Andover, N. Y.

Treasurer—Mrs. Amy Travis, Washington, D. C.

Historian—Miss Sara M. Soule, Oneonta, N. Y..

Poet—Mrs. Emily Huntington Miller, Evanston, Ill.

Trustee of Class Building—Mrs. L. Knight, St. Louis, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—ASTER.

CLASS COLORS—CREAM AND SHRIMP PINK.

A BOOKLET containing a program of our decennial exercises, held at Chautauqua, N. Y., August 17, 1896, the history, poem, and a synopsis of the address by the president, is in process of preparation and will be ready for distribution soon after November 1. Any person may obtain as many copies as desired at twenty-five cents each, by addressing Miss Elinor G. Howard, 623 Gardent St., Hoboken, N. J. Orders should be sent at once. If more than the cost of printing is realized from the sale it will be applied toward the furnishing of the classroom.

CLASS OF 1885.—"THE INVINCIBLES."

"Press on, reaching after those things which are before."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.

First Vice President—E. C. Dean, Delhi, N. Y.

Second Vice President—Mrs. C. A. Hinckley, Delhi, N. Y.

Secretary—Miss Carrie Cooper, 71 Park Street, Montclair, N. J.

Treasurer—Mrs. M. L. Ensign, Chautauqua, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—HELIOTROPE.

CLASS OF 1884.—"THE IRREPRESSIBLES."

"Press forward; he conquers who will."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. D. Bridge, Chelsea, Mass.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. E. J. L. Baker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. S. E. Parker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; J. C. Park, Cincinnati, O.; Dexter Horton, Seattle, Wash.; G. W. Miner, Fredonia, N. Y.; Mrs. John Fairbanks, Seattle, Wash.

Corresponding Secretary—Miss Nellie Stone, Oswego, N. Y.

Recording Secretary—Adelaide L. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.

Treasurer—Miss M. E. Young, St. Louis, Mo.

Executive Committee—Mrs. W. W. Ross, Erie, Pa.; Miss E. A. Fowler, Pittsburg, Pa.; Mrs. S. E. Parker, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Mrs. W. D. Bridge, Chelsea, Mass.; Mrs. C. P. Matthews, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Miss Clara L. Smith, Erie, Pa.

Trustee for Three Years—Dr. W. D. Bridge, Chelsea, Mass.

CLASS FLOWER—GOLDENROD.

CLASS OF 1883—"THE VINCENTS."

"Step by step we gain the heights."

OFFICERS.

President—Miss Anna Gardner, Boston, Mass.
First Vice President—J. R. Pepper, Memphis, Tenn.
Second Vice President—Miss M. J. Perrine, Rochester. N. Y.
Secretary—Mrs. A. D. Alexander, Franklin, Pa.
Treasurer—Miss H. E. Eddy, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Banner Bearer—E. Tuttle, Busti, N. Y.

CLASS FLOWER—SWEET PEA.

CLASS OF 1882.—"THE PIONEERS."

"From height to height."

OFFICERS.

President—Mrs. B. T. Vincent, Denver, Col.
Vice Presidents—A. M. Martin, Pittsburg, Pa.; Dr. J. L. Hurlbut, New York N.Y.; Mrs. F. O. Bailey, Jamestown, N.Y.; Miss A. E. Cole, Wellsville, N. Y.
Secretary—Mrs. E. F. Curtis, Geneseo, N. Y.
Treasurer—Mrs. A. D. Wilder, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Trustees—Mrs. Thomas Park, Miss Luella Beaujeau, Miss Annie Cummings, Rev. J. M. Bray, A. D. Wilder.

CLASS SYMBOL—A HATCHET.

THE ORDER OF THE WHITE SEAL.

OFFICERS.

President—Rev. Thomas Cardus, 6 Cobb St., Rochester, N. Y.
Vice President—Miss Sarah Cawley, Morenci, Mich.
Secretary—W. H. Blanchard, Westminster, Vt.

LEAGUE OF THE ROUND TABLE.

OFFICERS.

President—W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.
Vice Presidents—Mrs. A. H. Chance, Vineland, N. J.; Mrs. S. W. Williams, Streator, Ill.; Mrs. N. B. E. Irwin, Jacksonville, Fla.
Secretary and Treasurer—McIlyar H. Lichliter, 57 Oak Hill Ave., Delaware, O.
Executive Committee—Miss Mary C. Hyde, Friendship, N. Y.; Mary W. Kimball, New York, N. Y.; Miss Caddie Whaley, Pomeroy, O.

GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

OFFICERS.

President—A. M. Martin, Pittsburg, Pa.
First Vice President—Mrs. George B. McCabe, Toledo, O.
Second Vice President—Mrs. L. B. Clarke, Andover. N. Y.
Secretary and Treasurer—Miss A. H. Gardner, 106 Chandler St., Boston, Mass.
Executive Committee—Mrs. E. F. Curtis, Geneseo, N. Y.; Miss M. E. Landfear, New Haven, Conn.; Mrs. William Hoffman, Troy, Pa.
Historian—Mrs. A. L. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.;

THE exercises of the decennial of the Guild of the Seven Seals marked a new step forward in the history of the C. L. S. C. at Chautauqua. The Guild, which represents all whose diplomas bear fourteen or more seals, stands for this reason as the expression of advanced work in the C. L. S. C., and the zealous members of this fraternity have so labored to build up the importance of their order that it already exerts no slight influence as a stimulus to graduates to continue habits of systematic study. The exercises of the decennial attracted members of the Guild to Chautauqua in larger numbers than ever before and out of the five hundred and twenty-five members of the Guild more than one fifth were present at the Assembly. The following table shows the total number of Guild members claimed by each of the graduate classes:

1882....114	1888....43	1894.... 8
1883.... 32	1889....44	1895.... 7
1884.... 37	1890....27	1896.... 2
1885.... 23	1891....35	1897.... 2
1886.... 64	1892....24	
1887.... 51	1893....12	

The decennial exercises were of a varied and interesting character, held as they were in the old Hall in the Grove which for nineteen summers has looked down upon the C. L. S. C. multitudes as they have gathered for Round Table or Vesper Service. The winds were whispering to the trees and the charm of the late afternoon hour with the sunlight slanting through the beautiful old forest trees brought back to the members of the Guild many hallowed memories. The program was full of variety and one of its notable features was a charming paper by Mrs. A. L. Westcott of Holley, New York, who reviewed the work of the Guild during the ten years of its history, weaving in many anecdotes selected from her correspondence with its members, and with it all setting forth the achievements and possibilities of the order with a play of fancy which was truly delightful. Brief addresses of greeting from Chancellor Vincent, Dr. Hurlbut, Mr. George E. Vincent, and others representing many aspects of Chautauqua life showed the important position which the Guild holds and suggested new possibilities for its future usefulness. Miss Mary A. Lathbury, whose name is known to every Chautauquan as well as to countless others by her well-known Vesper hymn, "Day is Dying in the West," contributed the following beautiful poem to the decennial.

FOR THE DECENNIAL OF THE GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

Wisdom hath builded her house: she hath hewn out her seven pillars.—Prov. 9:1.

Chautauqua, high among her hills,
Has spread her feast again;
Her jeweled cup all heaven fills
With sunshine and with rain.
Like Wisdom at her temple gates
She stands to bid us come;
Mother of multitudes, she waits
To win her children home.

Above the rush of life we heard
The music of her call.
We hear, and hasten at thy word,
O, mother of us all!
Within thy cloisters green, beneath
Thy seven-pillared dome
We see thy face, we breathe thy breath,
And hear thy welcome home.

Ten golden years—all treasure-ships—
Have sailed into the past,
And now, before the last sail dips
Below the horizon vast,

Give thanks! Sing praises! Count the gold
Of every age and clime;
The wealth of sages; records old,
The poets' songs sublime;

Count friendships with the good, the great;
Count fellowship with pain—
The throes that racked the church and state
Till truth was born again.
Count hope for every name and race:
Count love and faith to call
God, in all time and every place,
The Father of us all.

The years have sailed into the west,
And we their wealth have stored.
While other years—each last one best—
Are sailing hitherward.

Chautauqua, mother, teacher, friend,
To give as thou hast given,
To live to bless till life shall end,
We ask the grace of heaven.

The Guild are planning to issue an attractive little souvenir of their decennial which shall enable every member to secure full reports of the exercises.

A reading course has been arranged as a seal for the members of the Guild of the Seven Seals, the fee of fifty cents being required for the special memoranda for this seal. The books are: "Imperial Germany," "The Social Spirit in America," Drummond's "The Ascent of Man," and THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"*We Study the Word and the Works of God.*" "*Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst.*"
"*Never be Discouraged.*"

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1897–98.

WILLIAM I. DAY—October 25.
BISMARCK DAY—November 16.
MOLTKE DAY—December 3.
PLINY DAY—January 23.
JUSTINIAN DAY—February 10.
FREDERICK II. DAY—March 20.
MOHAMMED DAY—April 3.
NICCOLO PISANO DAY—May 28.

THE results of the past year's work have been exceedingly gratifying, and the scores of new circles formed all over the land are convincing evidence of the increasing interest in the Chautauqua System. The Chautauqua circles were represented at no less than sixty Assemblies during the present season. At old Chautauqua, Rallying Day, on August 5, was celebrated by the representatives of nearly one hundred circles, and the exercises of the day, from the "rally" in the morning to the reception at night, were rendered full of enthusiasm by this body of representative Chautauquans. The morning rally was held in the Hall of Philosophy at eleven o'clock. The delegates occupied seats reserved for them; the Hall was crowded with friends and many more stood on the outskirts throughout the exercises. The greetings were brief, bright, and varied. Mrs. A. F. Piatt, C. L. S. C. secretary for the Winfield, Kansas, Assembly, referred to the splendid work of the famous Sunflower Circle at Wichita, Kansas, and then spoke of the influence of Chautauqua among the people of widely scattered farms and villages throughout the territory of Oklahoma. The first two members of the Class of 1901 who had come to her to join the Circle were living on farms far from every advantage of towns or education, and it was possible to imagine what a beautiful influence Chautauqua would be in the lives of these isolated readers. The circle at the center, Chautauqua, was described in a most amusing manner by Miss Hazen, who explained how the bell was rung on October 1, setting all other circles at work the world over, and how even through the storms and snows of winter this little band of Chautauquans high up in the lake region were keeping the sacred Chautauqua fires aglow. Tennessee was ably represented by the state secretary, Miss Battaile, who on this her first visit to Chautauqua won many friends by her charming personality. The famous old Alpha Circle of Cincinnati, which has been active since 1878, was reported by its delegate, Miss O'Connell, as most active and planning larger things for the near future. Many other circles and sections of the country were heard from, and even the Class of 1901 and the circles yet to be were happily presented by Mrs. Martha Foote Crow, of The University of Chicago, who spoke of the new scientific theory that what

had been thought to be the circling courses of the planets were not circles but spirals, and so the circles of Chautauqua should be like the paths of planets, leading in gigantic spirals to higher and better life. Greetings were also received from the Pacific coast circles as follows:

"The Pacific coast branch of the C. L. S. C. to the mother Chautauqua, greeting. The testimonies of our Round Table from many grateful hearts, from the mountains, valleys, and shores of California, assure and reassure us that our reading circle makes life more abundant in society, in the church, and in the home.

"Signed, E. McClish, president,
"E. J. Dawson, secretary."

In the evening a general reception to the delegates was given by all members of the C. L. S. C., and under the light of the Athenian Watch-fires there was much genial fellowship until the chimes rang out their good-night.

NEW YORK.—Decoration Day found the Chautauqua Union of New York City ready for their seventh annual outing, with West Point as the objective point. The event was enjoyable in every particular. The United States Military Academy at West Point was visited, also other places of historic interest. A banquet prepared expressly for this excursion was duly appreciated. Another occasion celebrated by the persevering Chautauquans of New York was the ninth annual moonlight excursion. On June 12 the iron steamer *Sirius*, freighted with a gay crowd of excursionists and bound for Laurelton Grove, Cold Spring Harbor, started on its trip up Long Island Sound. In due time the party arrived at their destination and after about four hours' stay returned to the steamer and embarked for home. On the return trip a band concert was given in the cabin, and a delectable banquet added to the delights of the excursion.——Chautauqua Field-day was celebrated on June 5 under the auspices of the Brooklyn Chautauqua Union, the Brooklyn Alumni, the Hudson County (N. J.) Chautauqua Circles, and the Hurlbut Circle. Besides the field-day exercises a Round Table was conducted by the Hudson County secretary, and in the evening several addresses were made and reports from various circles in Brooklyn, Jersey City, and Staten Island were read. On May 6 the Sixth Avenue Baptist Church of Brooklyn was crowded to witness the Recognition Day exercises of the Brooklyn Chautauqua Union. The main interest of the evening centered in an ably sustained mock trial and the presentation of two elegant prizes; one to Mrs. Craken of the Ad Astra Circle for an essay on "French Women," the other to Mrs. C. A. Tier of the Alumni for the best poem on Greece. Both were productions well worth the honor received. From the poem we quote the following:

Hail! glorious Greece, against whose rocky shore
The Ægean wavelets dash and surge forevermore;
Whose sunlit clouds bend low to kiss thy templed hills,
And zephyrs from Ionian seas caress thy murmuring rills.

Graceful thy daughters, braver yet thy sons,
Whose valorous deeds performed, the legend runs,
That 'neath thy blood-stained soil thy patriots slumber well
Whose strife for liberty, alone Thermopylæ may tell.

The nations low before thee bow, and at thy classic shrine
Of art and sculpture rare are hailing thee divine;
In poetry and song, to thee all yield the palm supreme,
And in thy beauteous grace acknowledge thee their queen.

But far above all classic fame or bravest deeds enrolled,
We laud the tender motherhood, whose gentle arms enfold
Her fairest sea-girt island child, loved Crete, now crouching low
And trembling in the dust, appalled by the grim Turkish foe.

The author then speaks feelingly of the struggle between Turkey and Greece and closes with these lines:

But may fair Crete the nations call from East and West to see
The crushing of the tyrant's power by her new-born liberty.

Whose first sweet natal breath is drawn from her free native skies,
Where morning stars in unison in grand concordance rise,
And joyful hallelujahs sing to him who reigns above,
Father supreme of brotherhood, of liberty, and love.

Kimball Circle, with its "faithful ten," has spent a profitable year in study.

If ever there was a verb alive, I'm it. For I'm always a bein', sometimes a doin', and continually a sufferin'.

This sentiment from "Martin Chuzzlewit" appears on the program of a Dickens evening enjoyed by the Brooklyn Alumni at 15 Arlington Place. There was first a Vesper Service, then a paper on "Dickens *vs.* Thackeray," after which were read outlines of "Bleak House," "Dombey and Son," and "Our Mutual Friend"; good music was also a pleasing feature.——Best wishes to all furthering the Chautauqua System are sent from the circle at Halls. They report a successful year with a membership of thirty-four, some of whom are magazine readers, and an average attendance of twenty-one. An appreciative circle, they have derived much benefit from the course of '96–97, the interest in astronomy being enhanced by several interesting lectures on the subject.——As previously noted in our *Local Circle* department, the Oneida Circle was separated into two divisions and the section having the most credits at the end of the year was to be banqueted by the losing side. Of this event the secretary writes: "One of the pleasant occasions of the Oneida Circle of the Nineteenth Century Class was the banquet given at the summer home of Mr. and Mrs. Haseltine, July 2, at the expense of the losing side. Toasts were happily responded to and the perfect day made the occasion a pleasant closing of the year's work."——The Plus Ultras of Jamestown, numbering thirteen, are reading "The Lay of the Last Minstrel" and "Childe Harold."——Four '99's are registered from Geneva.——The closing meeting of The Progressives at Adams was

held at the home of the president of the circle, Mrs. D. W. Young, where about forty Chautauquans and their friends enjoyed the entertaining program prepared. Papers were read on Roman, English, American, and Grecian history, and the benefits to be obtained by reading the four years' course were ably presented in an interesting paper. In conclusion the president gave a faithful *résumé* of the four years' work of The Progressives. May these graduates remain with us and continue their work through many years to come.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Longfellow Circle at Allegheny reports a slight falling off during the warm season, but they will doubtless take up the cause in the fall with renewed vigor.——A class of twenty cultured ladies at Wellsboro are spreading the Chautauqua work. The president has the success of the circle very much at heart and it is hoped that the new year will find them entering with enthusiasm upon the German-Roman studies.——"Our circle is in a flourishing condition and all are interested in the work," writes the secretary of the circle at Orwigsburg.

TEXAS.—The Gardinia Circle of Alvin was so christened from the flower of that name, which grows in great abundance in this locality and of which Alvin is the largest shipping point in the world, the fields of this flower ranging from one half to twelve acres. The colors adopted by the circle are green and white, the flower, the gardinia, and the motto, "Let not thy spirit fail thee, for the undaunted does best in every enterprise." It is hoped that the growth of this far-away circle may be as luxuriant as the flower from which it is named.

OHIO.—Every Chautauquan will sympathize with the alumni association of Toledo in their loss of a faithful worker, to whom the committee on resolutions give the following tribute: "Our Chautauqua Alumni Association has been greatly bereaved by the sudden going home of our dear president, Mrs. Frances J. Sumner. Her personal influence and enthusiasm made this organization possible. From the first her name has been among its officers. Her voice has led us in the reverent repetition of our mottoes, 'We study the word and the works of God,' and 'Let us keep our Heavenly Father in the midst.' The spirit of these mottoes animated her whole life, making her influence an inspiring element in the lives of others. May her example of untiring devotion to a high purpose in life lead us to experience new power in the words 'Never be discouraged.'"——The closing year of '96–97 brings in its wake several circles belonging to 1900 which, although late in reporting, have finished the course and are fully equipped for the reading that is to follow. The class at Lima reports seven, one having dropped out on account of sickness; at Henley five have been reading since October, and at Newark the circle closed the year with eight members. ——An encouraging letter from Norwalk says: "Our circle meets every Monday afternoon. We have an attendance of eleven, all much interested in the readings. We began late but by hard work have caught up with the class."——The secretary of Lowell C. L. S. C., Columbus, sends two membership fees.

MINNESOTA.—The following newsy letter comes from Duluth: "The closing of the work of the Athena Circle, Duluth, this year was marked by one of the most delightful and novel events in its history. Through the generosity and hospitality of its president, Mr. W. S. Moore, who has been an enthusiastic admirer and a careful reader of the Chautauqua course almost from its inception, a company of about forty Chautauquans met at his home on Wednesday evening, June 30. The lawn was illuminated with Chinese lanterns, and at one end a large awning was erected under which supper was served. The tables were set in the form of a cross, and at each plate, as a souvenir of the occasion, was an artistically engraved card bearing the following inscription: 'Athena Circle, French-Greek Year, 1896–97,' and on the upper left-hand corner the monogram 'C. L. S. C,' with a Greek cross below it in raised gilt letters embellished with French and Greek colors. The weather was beautiful, and all enjoyed themselves in the open air until about 9:30 p. m., when the company repaired to the house, where a short literary program concluded a most delightful evening."——A local paper gives the following notice concerning the circle at Buffalo: "The annual Chautauqua banquet which closes the year's work was held May 28 at Mrs. J. H. Wendell's beautiful home on the lake shore, and will always remain a delightful memory to the twenty-four present. The floral decorations were very elaborate, every available place being heavily banked with ferns and French honeysuckles of pink and white. The floral centerpiece for the table was composed of maidenhair ferns, white French honeysuckles, and beautiful 'meteor' roses. The studies of the year were suggested by the French tricolor and the Greek flag, which kept company with the stars and stripes on the wall, and the souvenirs of the evening were France and Greece cut out of transparent celluloid, a crescent, and a star, representing the study of the sky—these three tied with white, green, and pink to carry out the color scheme of the decorations. Under the name-cards which gave the guests their places at the table were cards with a C. L. S. C. grace, which was chanted by the circle." The menu was composed of all sorts of good things, and the toasts were responded to in a manner worthy of any Chautauquan.

THE SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1897.

CHAUTAUQUA, NEW YORK. After eight weeks of enjoyment in educational and recreative fields the residents of the summer city on Lake Chautauqua have gone to their homes with minds and bodies refreshed. The memory of the pleasant hours, of the friendships formed, and the inspiration to nobler living which every true Chautauquan receives will revolutionize the old home life and the influence of Chautauqua will be extended through them to those who have never enjoyed its privileges.

The advantages of Chautauqua are numerous and varied. In the twenty-four years of its existence it has developed into a town in which a transient population of many thousands is comfortably housed, enjoying the conveniences found in any well-regulated and large municipality.

Rapid and easy communication with the outside world by telephone, telegraph, and excellent mail service have been made possible by the wise forethought of the managers.

Each year improvements are made on the grounds and new buildings erected. Work on the Hall of the Christ, the site for which was dedicated last year, will doubtless begin at an early date, the fund for that purpose having been made sufficiently large by the liberality of Miss Helen Gould, who contributed $5,000 to it.

Thousands of people from every section of the United States availed themselves of the unusual opportunities offered by Chautauqua. In social circles there was great activity. The receptions, banquets, and entertainments given by the various Chautauqua Clubs, C. L. S. C. classes, and other organizations furnished abundant opportunities for social intercourse. The occasional rainy day had no effect on the attendance at the different attractions offered by the general program of the Assembly, which on some days numbered as high as thirty. Every day of the season there were at least five important meetings to call the attention of the thousands on the grounds. The popular illustrated lectures, while not a new feature of the general program, commanded appreciative attention. A large number of the lectures were closely related to the subjects of the C. L. S. C. text-books for 1897–98, and of those which emphasized the value of giving instruction according to pedagogical laws there was a much larger number than usual. In the fields of literature and art there were able and instructive lectures by Leon H. Vincent, Dr. N. I. Rubinkam, Prof. W. D. McClintock, Mr. A. T. Van Laer, and Rev. G. F. Slayton. Sociological and economic questions were discussed by Mr. Percy Alden, of London, Prof. Graham Taylor, Prof. C. R. Henderson, Mr. Jacob Riis, and others who have made a study of these questions. Bishop John H. Vincent in his course of lectures on "The Inner Life" gave Chautauquans food for thought in his usually charming manner. Historical, biographical, and philosophical subjects were treated in a logical and popular manner by some of the ablest thinkers and orators on the lecture platform. Interspersed among all these lectures were entertainments of a varied character.

Throughout the season the excellent character of the music rendered was noticeable. The organization of the Musical Literary Club gave a delightful variation in the musical program, and the recitals given were enjoyable for the exquisite music and for the comments and explanations which rendered it comprehensible to all. Dr. Palmer conducted the Assembly Choir, which, with the aid of Mr. Harry Fellows, Mr. Homer Moore, and Mme. Cecilia Epping-Housen-Bailey, as soloists, rendered Beethoven's oratorio "The Mount of Olives." The Children's Chorus, under the direction of Prof. L. S. Leason, gave several very enjoyable concerts. The organ recitals and band concerts were as usual important factors in the success of the musical department.

The general program is but one of the features which make Chautauqua such a delightful place. The schools which are in session every summer enrolled a large number of students. There were represented in the Collegiate Department almost every religious denomination and fourteen trades or professions, the majority of the students being teachers. Ninety-three different educational institutions in various parts of the Union had representatives in the schools. These statistics indicate the popularity of the educational department and the many channels through which its influence is reaching out into the world. In each department thoroughness characterized the work.

Work in the C. L. S. C. department of the Assembly was inaugurated by the exercises of Rallying Day, August 6, in which nearly one hundred delegates, representing thousands of C. L. S. C. readers, participated. At the Conference held in the Hall of Philosophy reports were given of the C. L. S. C. work done in the United States and in Southern Africa, where there are many readers among the Dutch and English settlers. The Round Table and the Council meetings were centers of interest and inspiration.

Recognition Day, with its imposing ceremonies, was a most joyous occasion. Chancellor Vincent presided, and the orator of the occasion was President Goucher, of the Woman's College, Baltimore, whose scholarly address appears in this impression of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. At the afternoon meeting a message from the British Chautauqua was read and several short addresses were made by friends of the C. L. S. C. cause. The exercises of the day closed with an evening rally held in the Amphitheater. The constant growth of the C. L. S. C. and its influence on the lives of the people are indicated in the clear, concise annual report of the secretary, Miss Kate F. Kimball, published in the *Chautauqua Assembly Herald*. It should be read by every member of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle, and by those interested in the extension of culture. The Class of 1901, the Twentieth Century Class, in which are enrolled many young people and people from every station in life, including the college professor and college graduate, is fully organized, ready to begin the work in October.

BURLINGTON, IOWA. Those who had charge of the Burlington Chautauqua Assembly are to be congratulated on the success of the first meeting. In spite of the numerous obstacles which the pioneers of every similar enterprise must encounter, an excellent program, consisting largely of music and lectures, was provided for the entertainment of visitors. Among those who assisted on the lecture platform are Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Dr. Robert McIntyre, Dr. P. S. Henson, Col. George Bain, and Miss Addam, of Hull House. The large and continued attendance of the people of Burlington and vicinity far exceeded the most sanguine expectations of the board of directors and made possible the financial success of the initial meeting of the Assembly. Plans for next year's meeting are already begun.

CARTHAGE, MISSOURI. The first session of the Interstate Chautauqua Assembly at Carthage, Mo., was a complete success, and the attendance throughout the session very good.

The usual order of exercises was followed on Recognition Day. The educational department offered instruction in Bible study, pedagogy, literature, C. L. S. C. work, normal work, and woman's clubs.

Among the lecturers present at the Assembly were Rev. T. DeWitt Talmage, Sam P. Jones, Robert McIntyre, Jahu DeWitt Miller, Leon H. Vincent, Dr. Willits, Dr. George M. Brown, and W. J. Bryan.

CLARINDA, IOWA. For the first time there was held at Clarinda, Ia. a Chautauqua Assembly, which continued from June 21 to July 5. The attendance was good and the directors, represented by the president, Rev. J. F. St. Clair, and the superintendent of instruction, J. L. McBrien, report an interesting and profitable meeting.

Several departments of instruction were organized and conducted by skilled leaders. Many prominent lecturers added interest to the occasion, and impersonators, dramatic readers, and musicians helped to make a very complete and varied program.

On Recognition Day there was a special program for the occasion. Several C. L. S. C. graduates passed under the arches and the address to them was delivered by Dr. John Gallagher. Music for the day was furnished by the Knoll-McNeil Company.

During the Assembly the C. L. S. C. work was represented in Round Table meetings by interested laborers, and the result was the enlistment of about forty readers for the coming year.

CLARION, STRATTONVILLE, PENNSYLVANIA. A larger attendance than usual greeted the lecturers at the Clarion Assembly. Among those who helped to entertain the patrons of the Assembly were Chaplain Lozier, Dr. Eugene May, Pres. W. H. Crawford, and Rev. J. Bell Neff.

On Recognition Day an interesting address was delivered by Dr. R. F. Randolph. Four graduates received diplomas and a Class of 1901 was organized.

In the educational department excellent results were accomplished by the instructors, each of whom was a specialist in his department. The music, of which Mrs. Darr had charge, was of an unusually high order.

CRETE, NEBRASKA. The efforts of the management of Crete Chautauqua Assembly were rewarded by the unusual success of the summer meeting.

In the C. L. S. C. department the Round Table, led by Miss Kate Kimball, was the center for the discussion of subjects pertaining to the C. L. S. C. work. On Recognition Day Dr. Washington Gladden delighted the audience with his lecture on "Castles in the Air." Four graduates received diplomas, and the Class of 1901 will be the larger because of the Crete Assembly.

Several departments of instruction were provided, the most important of which were the ministers' institute, the senior normal class, the children's class, the W. C. T. U. school of methods, and New Testament studies.

On the program for entertainment a diversity of talent was represented. Lectures were delivered by some of America's best platform talent and musical programs were rendered by Slayton's Tennesseeans, the Doane Band, and a number of fine soloists.

At this, the sixteenth annual meeting of the Assembly, there was a good attendance and the beautiful grounds and the excellent program combined to make every visitor happy.

CRYSTAL SPRINGS, MISSISSIPPI. R. W. Baily, superintendent of instruction at the Mississippi Chautauqua Assembly, reports the attendance as fully twice as large as ever before.

English language and literature, physical science and physiology, Latin, Greek, and New Testament exegesis were the several departments in which instruction was given.

Musicians, impersonators, magicians, and entertainers appeared to amuse and instruct. Among the lecturers were Rev. Alfred A. Wright, D. D., Dr. Henson, and Rev. H. M. Du Bose.

DES MOINES, IOWA. It is estimated that from 50,000 to 60,000 people attended the Midland Chautauqua Assembly, an increase in attendance of nearly sixty per cent over that of last year. A change in the location of the Assembly grounds threatened the management with financial failure, but as the superior character of the programs became known such immense crowds thronged the grounds that the auditorium was unable to accommodate them. From beginning to end there was a steady increase of interest that resulted in securing subscriptions for season tickets for next year amounting to about $1,500.

In the educational department special interest was manifested in the School of Sociology, the School of Sacred Literature, and in the Round Table. Excellent work was also done in the normal class, the junior class, parliamentary law, music, and physical culture, trained educators being at the head of each department.

The Round Table was conducted by Miss Kate Kimball, Dr. George M. Brown, Dr. B. T. Vincent, and Mrs. B. T. Vincent. A pleasant social feature of C. L. S. C. Rallying Day was a reception given to all visiting Chautauquans by the Des Moines Chautauquans. The preparations for Recognition Day were very complete. The usual order of exercises was followed; a large procession, including sixty flower girls, a band, and the officers of the Assembly, escorted the graduates from the golden gate to the auditorium, where eleven received their hard-earned diplomas. The organization of a class for 1901 was also a feature of the C. L. S. C. work of the Assembly.

The lectures and various entertainments were furnished by the best talent the lecture platform affords.

DEVIL'S LAKE, NORTH DAKOTA. At Devil's Lake Assembly an active interest was manifested in music, Bible study, astronomy, psychology, elocution, and ministerial work. Each of these departments was in charge of talented instructors. The C. L. S. C. Round Table talks given by Dr. H. P. Cooper were interesting and instructive, and the Class of 1901 received several additions to its number as a result of these talks.

Everything possible was done for the entertainment of visitors, of whom there was a larger number present this year than during any season since the opening of this Chautauqua. The lectures by Judge Norris, Pres. George Hindley, Dr. E. L. Eaton, and Dr. McClary attracted large audiences, and the pictures exhibited by the cinematograph delighted all.

At the camp-fire, which formed one of the most pleasing features of the Assembly, addresses were made by Dr. Cooper and Dr. Hindley and appropriate music lent impressiveness to the occasion.

HAVANA, ILLINOIS. The leading platform speakers at the Havana Assembly were Dr. J. P. D. John, Dr. J. R. Reitzel, Bishop Vincent, Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Booker T. Washington, Sam P. Jones, and Hon. Henry Watterson.

The interests of household science were promoted by the cooking-school conducted by Miss Grace W. Braggins. The work in the C. L. S. C. department resulted in the organization of a Class of 1901.

An interesting general program was arranged for the patrons of the Assembly, who gathered in large numbers to be entertained and amused.

LAKE MADISON, SOUTH DAKOTA. A most satisfactory program was furnished for the Lake Madison State Chautauqua Assembly. Though severe storms prevented the usual large attendance, appreciative listeners enjoyed the fine addresses and entertainments of different kinds. Among those who contributed to the success of the Assembly were Rev. George Cole, Samuel Phelps Leland, Edward P. Gaston, Dr. Erwin R. Richards, Sam P. Jones, Mrs. Leonora M. Lake, the Catholic lady orator, Miss Eva Shontz, and Heber Dowling McDonald. Bands, quartets, and soloists furnished fine music during the session.

In the educational department instruction was given in pedagogy, elocution, physical culture, kindergarten methods, music, Bible study, and normal work.

The questions of special interest to the C. L. S. C. readers were discussed in daily meetings and members were added to the Class of 1901. To arouse the interest of the people in the subject of education for the masses it was suggested that each minister of the state be provided with C. L. S. C. circulars and requested to present the advantages of the course to his congregation.

On Recognition Day the regular exercises were held. Dr. Charles F. Aked delivered the address and diplomas were awarded to two who had completed the four years' course.

LAKESIDE, OHIO. Seven graduates received diplomas at the Lakeside Assembly on Recognition Day, when exercises usual on such occasions were held.

Earnest work for the C. L. S. C. was done at

Round Table meetings and the result was the formation of a Class of 1901.

Among those who took part in the general program of the Assembly were Dr. A. C. Dixon, Dr. P. S. Henson, Dr. C. F. Aked, Dr. J. W. Bowen, the Fisk Jubilee Singers, and the Smith Sisters' Sextet.

LONG BEACH, CALIFORNIA. At the Long Beach Assembly nineteen graduates received their diplomas representing four years of faithful work. Recognition exercises of an unusually interesting character were held in the tabernacle, which was appropriately decorated with ivy and palms. At intervals in the main aisle were placed four arches, under which the graduates marched, and before ascending the platform they passed through the golden gate. Responsive readings, music, and an address by Professor Syle were features of the program. New members were added to the C. L. S. C. Class of 1901 and plans were projected for holding Round Table meetings in all the principal towns of southern California.

On the general program were lecturers, entertainers, and musicians of rare ability. Concerts were given by Miss Ellen Beach Yaw before large and appreciative audiences.

The summer school, at first offering instruction only in biology, has increased in a few years to about a dozen different departments, in each of which practical educational work was done this season.

From the first day to the last large audiences greeted the talent secured for the occasion.

MELBOURNE, FLORIDA. From March 20 to March 31 many people spent a few delightful days at the Florida East Coast Chautauqua Assembly, which convened at Melbourne, Florida, a town on Indian River near the Atlantic coast. The beauties of the town and the surrounding country, in themselves attractive to tourists, were made doubly so by the excellent program prepared for the entertainment of visitors by the energetic and enthusiastic president and superintendent of instruction, Frank H. Fee and Rev. William Shaw.

In the educational department Prof. E. B. Wakefield had charge of the normal Bible class. Miss Minnie E. Neal conducted the C. L. S. C. work. Several readers enrolled in the Class of 1901. Lectures were delivered by Prof. E. B. Wakefield, Dr. E. P. Herrick, Rev. J. J. Irvine, Rev. William Shaw, Rev. W. F. Brown, and Rev. B. Tyler. The success of the first meeting of this Assembly has led the managers to attempt greater things for the next session.

MONONA LAKE, WISCONSIN. Monona Lake Assembly has just closed a most successful session; but twice in its eighteen years has the attendance exceeded that of the present year.

Rev. J. A. Worden, D. D., was normal instructor and Mrs. W. F. Crafts conducted the primary work. Schools in elocution, physical culture, art, and cooking were maintained.

A series of literary lectures was given by Mr. Leon H. Vincent, and geology was the subject of a series delivered by Prof. F. G. Wright.

The leading platform speakers were Rev. J. W. E. Bessen, D. D., Rev. T. De Witt Talmage, B. Fay Mills, Gen. O. O. Howard, and Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth. Mrs. Katherine Fisk and Mackenzie Gerden, soloists, the Eastern Star and Arion Quartets, and Phinney's Band furnished the music.

Recognition Day was most successful. The procession and graduating exercises were in the forenoon; four passed the arches and received their diplomas.

The Recognition address was given in the afternoon by Bishop C. H. Fowler. Round Table meetings were well attended. A large number entered their names for the new class. Several hundred Chautauquans registered at headquarters. Miss C. Ella Neff was elected secretary. She is an enthusiastic Chautauquan and promises to push the work in Wisconsin to its fullest extent.

MOUNT GRETNA, PENNSYLVANIA. At the Pennsylvania Chautauqua Assembly Mr. George Lincks had charge of the C. L. S. C. work. The Round Table meetings and councils were largely attended and great interest was displayed in the literary and scientific subjects discussed. C. L. S. C. circulars were freely distributed and the work for 1897-98 fully explained at the Round Table and in the columns of the *Pennsylvania Chautauqua Record*, the daily paper published at the Assembly. Through the efforts of Mr. Lincks new members were added to the Class of 1901.

On Recognition Day the usual exercises were held and eleven readers passed through the golden gate and received their diplomas. The address was delivered by Rev. A. A. Arthur, Ph.D.

The schools of the Assembly were fully equipped to do thorough educational work. They offered about thirty different departments from which students could choose what best suited their tastes.

Excellent lectures and entertainments were provided for the patrons of the Assembly. Among the platform orators who attracted large audiences were Dr. Weidner, Leon H. Vincent, Frank Hamilton Cushing, Percy M. Reese, Dr. Schmucker, Dr. Richards, Dr. Harrison, and Mrs. Rorer.

The programs for the closing days of the Assembly were largely given up to music. The Tyrolean Troubadours, the DeKoven Quartet, and the Beethoven String Quartet are some of the organizations which delighted the Assembly. Soloists of great ability and dramatic readers were also present to add variety to the program. To the list of enter-

tainers should be added the waifs from New York sent to the Assembly by means of *The New York Tribune* fresh-air fund. With a program varied in character, they furnished a rare treat to a large audience.

OCEAN GROVE, NEW JERSEY. The Ocean Grove Sunday-school and Chautauqua Assembly offered several departments of instruction to students. Biblical instruction was in charge of Dr. B. B. Loomis; Prof. W. A. Hutchinson conducted the normal department; music was taught by Dr. J. R. Sweeney; the junior department was looked after by Mrs. B. B. Loomis; and the C.L.S.C. interests were in charge of Cornelia A. Teal. The classes in all the departments were much larger than usual.

On Recognition Day the regular services were held and three graduates passed through the golden gate. The address was delivered by Pres. George E. Reed, of Dickinson College.

Lectures were delivered by noted public speakers and the patrons of the Assembly were much interested in the Edison photoscope. The music was very enjoyable, the violin recital by Signor Guiseppe Vitale being especially fine.

OTTAWA, KANSAS. The Ottawa Chautauqua Assembly held its session at Forest Park, Ottawa, and the attendance exceeded that of any previous year. It is estimated that the average daily attendance was 5,000.

In the eleven educational departments thorough work was done under the direction of superior educators.

At the Round Table meetings interesting programs were carried out and the C. L. S. C. work explained and discussed. No difficulties in regard to conducting local circles were reported but some of the readers considered the work for the year very difficult. It was found by questioning that they had made the work hard by pursuing their investigations further than was really required by the course of reading. Many joined the Class of 1901.

On Recognition Day the rain prevented the usual procession but the arches were placed in the center aisle of the tabernacle and the exercises were none the less interesting because of the stormy weather. Dr. J. L. Hurlbut and Bishop Fowler gave excellent addresses to the graduating class, which was composed of six persons.

The general program arranged for the entertainment of the Assembly's visitors was varied and complete. The cinematograph proved highly entertaining and the art gallery and conferences were very popular. The dedication of a new woman's building, Prentis Hall, was an interesting feature of the general program. Many eminent lecturers helped to make this session of the Assembly a successful one.

ROCK RIVER, ILLINOIS. The Rock River Chautauqua Assembly entertained a much larger number of guests this year than during the preceding season.

Music, art, oratory, municipal government, and Bible study were the departments of instruction in which students enrolled.

At the Round Table meetings an interesting paper was presented by Mrs. Alice Bowen on the benefits of local circles. Dr. George M. Brown ably discussed the subjects of brain culture and the art of retaining youth. The C. L. S. C. Class of 1901 received additions to its membership. On Recognition Day the principal address was delivered by Dr. George M. Brown and diplomas were presented to three graduates.

The list of lecturers present at the Assembly contains the names of Pres. W. H. Crawford, Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Gen. John B. Gordon, Dr. G. A. Wirt, and Mrs. T. V. Morse.

ROUND LAKE, NEW YORK. Recognition Day exercises were held at the Round Lake Assembly and Minister's Institute. The chief speaker was the Rev. H. A. Buttz. The advantages of the C. L. S. C. were considered at the Round Table meetings.

In the educational department there were classes in biblical exposition, New Testament Greek, Hebrew, Christian archeology, pulpit oratory, systematic theology, and in normal, junior, and primary work.

Among those who lectured at the Assembly were J. E. C. Sawyer, Dr. B. B. Loomis, Prof. S. C. K. Putnam, Rev. C. A. Woodruff, Bishop Newman, and Rev. M. B. Chapman.

SILVER LAKE, NEW YORK. At Silver Lake Assembly interesting services were held on Recognition Day. The usual procession was followed by an able address delivered by Dr. G. W. Peck. Three graduates received diplomas.

At the Round Table meetings the studies for the German-Roman year were discussed. In the other departments of the Assembly instruction was given in music, athletics, and the school system.

Among those who assisted on the lecture platform were Dr. McIntyre, Edward P. Gaston, and Prof. J. P. Ashley.

THOUSAND ISLAND PARK, NEW YORK. An Assembly was opened this year at Thousand Island Park with a good attendance. The president, Rev. William Searls, and the superintendent of instruction, Rev. William C. Wilbor, arranged for interesting Round Table meetings, which were largely attended. The themes for discussion were (1) Reading and Education; (2) The Books for 1897–98; and (3) Vacation, Avocation, and Vocation. The possibility of finding time to pursue a course of reading was emphasized

and many expressed a desire to begin the C. L. S. C. work. The state teachers' institute afforded special privileges to Chautauqua students.

Bishop Vincent was present and lectured, preached, and conducted a Vesper Service. Other lecturers were Dr. C. C. Wilbor, Bishop McCabe, Dr. Territt, Professor Ludlam, and Dr. W. C. Wilbor.

WATERLOO, IOWA. Through the efforts of the directors of the Waterloo Assembly the season of 1897 was the most successful in the history of the Assembly. Immense crowds were attracted by the general program and the educational departments, both of which were of a very high order. Among the lecturers were Jahu DeWitt Miller, Hon. G. R. Wendling, Dr. J. F. Nugent, Frank R. Roberson, Col. George W. Bain, and Dr. Charles F. Aked. Delightful music was rendered by the Euterpean Quartet, Mr. Thuel Burnhan, and Miss Marie L. Carter, and artistic readings were given by Miss Isabel Garghill.

Very large and enthusiastic C. L. S. C. Round Table meetings were conducted by Mrs. A. E. Shipley, and the work of the Women's Council was thoroughly enjoyed by many earnest workers. A number showed their interest in universal education by joining the C. L. S. C. Class of 1901.

WILLAMETTE VALLEY, OREGON. Twelve departments of instruction were offered by the Willamette Valley Assembly, each under the direction of a specialist. In the C.L.S.C. department Round Table meetings were conducted by Dr. Thomas Van Scoy and a Class of 1901 was organized. On Recognition Day a class of twelve received diplomas and listened to an able address by Dr. Charles Edward Locke.

Readings, concerts, and miscellaneous entertainments, combined with lectures made the general program interesting and varied. Bishop Cranston, Miss Ida Benfey, Dr. A. W. Lamar, Miss Ray Frank, Joaquin Miller, Edward Page Gaston, and Miss Jessie Ackerman are some of the names found on the program. Several special days were observed with appropriate exercises, at which times subjects of local and general interest were brought to the attention of the people.

Athletic sports received more than usual attention and every effort was made to furnish amusement as well as instruction for the patrons of the Assembly.

The attendance this year was double that of any previous season and the financial outlook is very gratifying to the management.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Nature Studies. The introduction of nature studies into the work of the public schools has brought forth several excellent books intended to aid teachers in making special preparation for this branch of their labor. One of these, "A Few Familiar Flowers,"* most appropriately shows how to teach young children about the morning-glory, nasturtium, touch-me-not, scarlet geranium, and hyacinth, three of which flowers may be obtained in the early days of autumn. The lessons are very simple and comprehensive, telling about all the important parts of these plants and flowers and the function of each. The book also includes an outline for the study of any flowering plant and a glossary. The illustrations are numerous and artistic.

The reader of "Citizen Bird,"† be he young or old, will find his interest in the little feathered friends increased. The book is in the story form, with seven characters anxious to observe and learn the habits and characteristics of the birds. What they see during the summer on the "Orchard Farm," along the river, and on the seashore is attractively told in language not too difficult for the youthful observer. The closing chapter gives a list of the birds talked about, with the scientific name of each. To the author's description of the birds the artist has added many appropriate illustrations, making a volume to be commended for its artistic qualities as well as for the spirit of love and protection which it must engender in the heart of every reader.

The plant life, the birds, and the insects found along the public highway furnish the subject matter of "Familiar Features of the Roadside,"* by F. Schuyler Mathews. It is a delightful presentation of numerous interesting facts, many of which could have been discovered only by close observation and an intimacy with nature and her wonders. As one reads from page to page of the great variety of plant and animal life along the roadside he believes the author's statement that there is "never any senseless repetition in nature; she gives us a serial story which is never fully told." Not only is that which may be seen set forth, but that which may be heard is represented in musical characters, a method which will help the student to enjoy with greater

* A Few Familiar Flowers. By Margaret Warner Morley. 274 pp. 70 cts. Boston: Ginn & Company.

† Citizen Bird. Scenes from Bird-Life in Plain English for Beginners. By Mabel Osgood Wright and Elliott Coues. With one hundred and eleven illustrations by Louis Agassiz Fuertes. 444 pp. $1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

* Familiar Features of the Roadside. By F. Schuyler Mathews. With one hundred and sixty drawings by the author and many of the songs of our common birds and insects. 283 pp. $1.75.

fulness the music with which the air is filled. The author, also an artist, has illuminated his pages with one hundred and sixty drawings representing the wild life of the highway.

One of Appleton's Home Reading Books, called "In Brook and Bayou,"* is a small volume for children, in which the minute animal forms found in still water are described in a very entertaining style. By pictures the form, the organs, and the movements of the aquatic animals are represented and in a glossary the pronunciation of difficult terms is indicated. It is a book which will interest the young reader.

Books for Young People.

A delightful story of adventure in New Guinea is related by Willis Boyd Allen in "The Great Island, or Cast Away in Papua."† Like all valuable tales of this kind, it contains much information in regard to the fauna, flora, and climate of this little-known portion of the world. The experiences of these three boys in the forests and with the natives are told in a smooth, attractive style and the recital forms a deeply interesting story.

A livelier lot of lads than the Rangers of Berks ‡ would be difficult to find. There were ten of them, who one summer organized themselves into a band of outlaws, but through an accident to one of their number they became a relief corps. As the story proceeds they become Fire Rangers, Road Rangers, and Sea Rangers, and a fire-engine, bicycles, and boats are made causes of numerous exciting adventures, the outcome of which the reader hastens to learn. The story is chaste in every particular and told in a captivating manner.

If every boy who for the first time yields to a temptation to do wrong could have as wise and judicious a friend as did Johnny Wilder in "The First Temptation" ‖ there would be fewer inmates of reformatories and prisons. After the first fall the life of this young boy was a model in every respect and his efforts to surround the ordinary street boy with moral influences ought to be emulated by every one interested in the country's welfare. The value of home training in character building is a prominent thought of the story.

Gratitude to a benefactor may be an old subject for a story, but Albion W. Tourgée with his usual ease and skill has produced from it an attractive tale in which a young boy is the leading actor. In telling how the mortgage was removed from the Hip-Roof House * the author has made each character essential to the narrative, and while admiring the spirit of the lad the reader sympathizes with Killis Waugh in his trouble. There are just enough difficulties to be overcome by the lad to give zest to the story, which both boys and girls will read with pleasure.

The sad termination of a birthday anniversary which dawned with a roseate hue gives a pathetic tone to a story by Mrs. Molesworth called "The Oriel Window."† What transpired in this pleasant portion of the Watch Home is related in a simple yet vivid style, and there is conveyed to the reader a lesson of patience and helpfulness.

Life of Napoleon.

One of the supreme achievements of the period in historical writing is "The Life of Napoleon Bonaparte," ‡ by Dr. William Milligan Sloane, professor of history in Princeton University, the first volume of which was reviewed in these columns a few months ago. In the second and third volumes the story of Napoleon's life and work begins with the spring elections of Paris in 1797 and continues through the terrors and horrors of war and the intrigues of politicians to the evacuation of Moscow in 1812. In a careful way the author has set forth Napoleon's personality and the events of his life, giving the reader an insight into the political conditions which existed in Europe in the early years of the century; for every act of Napoleon—the least as well as those of supreme importance—is so weighted with historical significance that to study his life is to study the history of France and other European countries. The characters of many statesmen, courtiers, and sovereigns who were Napoleon's contemporaries are also more or less directly pictured. Therefore these volumes are a part of a composite whole dealing with most important personages and events. And all this is told with the clearness and conciseness of one who has studied well his subject and become thoroughly conversant with all the details of the history of this period. In the matter of illustrations the books are also to be admired. They contain about one hundred and forty full-page portraits and illustrations of important places and events, many of which are reproductions, in original colors, of famous

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* In Brook and Bayou, or Life in the Still Waters. By Clara Kern Bayliss. 195 pp. 60 cts. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† The Great Island, or Cast Away in Papua. By Willis Boyd Allen. 176 pp. 75 cts.——‡ The Ready Rangers. By Kirk Munroe. Illustrated by W. A. Rogers. 334 pp. $1.25. Boston: Lothrop Publishing Company.

‖ The First Temptation. By Mary Lee Stark. 86 pp. 50 cts. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings. New York: Eaton & Mains.

* The Mortgage on the Hip-Roof House. By Albion W. Tourgée. 206 pp. 90 cts. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings. New York: Eaton & Mains.

† The Oriel Window. By Mrs. Molesworth. Illustrated by L. Leslie Brooke. 197 pp. $1.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

‡ Life of Napoleon Bonaparte. By William Milligan Sloane, Ph.D., L.H.D. Vols. II. and III. 283+273 pp. Sold only by subscription. New York: The Century Co.

paintings. There are also numerous engravings in tints and in black and white, with several maps for the study of important campaigns. The heavy paper, broad margins, excellent type, and bright binding are other notable features of the mechanism of the work.

Other Biography.

The friends of Abigail Hopper Gibbons* and those interested in philanthropic enterprises will be glad to obtain possession of a couple of volumes in which the history of her life is told by means of letters to friends and to members of her family. The volumes contain many facts concerning the customs of the Friends, the progress of the antislavery movement, the draft riots of '63, and her work in hospital and camp during the Civil War and among the unfortunate in New York. The quiet literary character of the letters furnish entertaining reading.

Two volumes of the series called Foreign Statesmen are entitled "Maria Theresa"† and "Joseph II." In portraying the character of these sovereigns and describing their political work the author, Rev. J. Franck Bright, D.D., has necessarily presented a very distinct picture of an important period of European history. The War of the Austrian Succession, the Seven Years' War, the struggle in Poland, the foreign policy of Maria Theresa and Joseph II. and the difficulties to which the coregency led are subjects upon which much information is given to the reader in a generally clear and succinct literary style.

A very interesting work is an account of the life of Charles Darwin,‡ by Edward B. Poulton. Without striving for rhetorical effect, only using plain, simple language, the author has succeeded in impressing his readers with the importance of the results accomplished by Darwin. The story of his life includes an account of the theory of natural selection and shows its effect on other scientists of the same time. Many quotations from letters, notes, and Darwin's autobiography are incorporated in the work to substantiate the statements the author puts forth.

The forty-ninth volume of the "Dictionary of National Biography"‖ includes names which alphabetically occur between those of Robinson and Russell. In the facts it gives it is quite comprehensive and an index which includes the dates of the birth and death of the persons mentioned doubles the utility of the volume. It is printed in clear type on paper of a good quality and bound in brown cloth with gilt top.

The already long list of books pertaining to the life and character of General Grant has received another addition.* Dr. M. J. Cramer, a brother-in-law of General Grant, and ex-United States minister to Denmark and Switzerland, has deftly united personal conversations and letters on many subjects which reveal his conscientious, unswerving loyalty to country and friends.

* Life of Abby Hopper Gibbons. Told chiefly through her correspondence. Edited by her daughter, Sarah Hopper Emerson. Two vols. 402+376 pp. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

† Maria Theresa. By Rev. J. Franck Bright, D.D. 234 pp. 75 cts.—Joseph II. By Rev. J. Franck Bright, D.D. 232 pp. 75 cts.——‡ Charles Darwin and the Theory of Natural Selection. By Edward B. Poulton, M.A., F.R.S., F.G.S., F.L.S., etc. 232 pp. $1.25.——‖ Dictionary of National Biography. Edited by Sidney Lee. Vol. XLIX. Robinson-Russell. 502 pp. $3.75. New York: The Macmillan Company.

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Healey, Caroline W. Margaret and Her Friends; or, Ten Conversations With Margaret Fuller. $1.00.

SILVER, BURDETT & COMPANY, NEW YORK, BOSTON, CHICAGO.

Smith, Mary Cate. The World and Its People. Book VI. Life in Asia. Edited by Larkin Dunton, LL. D.

* Ulysses S. Grant. Conversations and Unpublished Letters. By M. J. Cramer, D.D., LL.D. 207 pp. 90 cts. New York: Eaton & Mains. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings.

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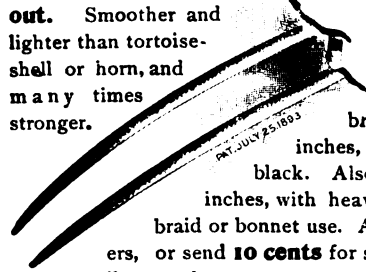

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DR. THEODORE L. FLOOD, Editor,
MEADVILLE, PA.

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From the painting by Tischbein, Städel Art Institute, Frankfort.

See page 139.

GOETHE IN ITALY.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

THE MODERN TALL BUILDING.*

BY OWEN BRAINARD.

SINCE that far-off time when the children of Noah turned to building and the study of languages, there have been many forms of tall structures; indeed there seems to be deeply planted in the human race some strong instinct which impels men to pile up material for the purpose of raising themselves above the natural surroundings. It has usually been manifested in the sentimental forms of temples, churches, and monuments. This instinct has made them quick to respond to the suggestions from other sources; hence the fighting men of the Middle Ages were not slow in perceiving the advantage of high towers as fighting platforms from which to harass an attacking party, and also as proud indications of their importance and power. After the medieval castle there is no well-distributed form of high buildings. The lack of necessity to go to the tenth story to throw stones at an enemy left men content to live near the ground and economize exertion.

THE ROOKERY, CHICAGO.

Within the last twenty years there have been developing reasons for a form of high building in a few large cities which has no precedent except the very indirect one of the old closes of Edinburgh. These ancient structures,

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

THE MASONIC TEMPLE, CHICAGO.

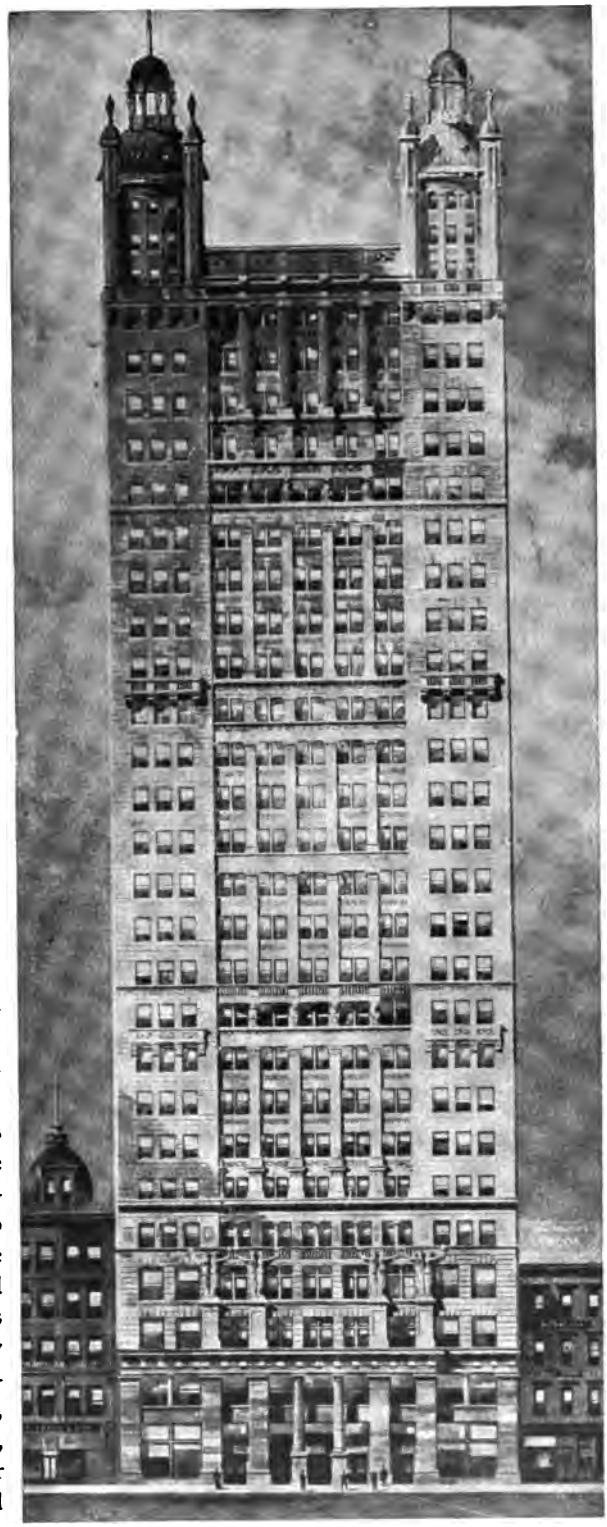
originally aristocratic residences, are but the upward extension of low buildings, the arrangement on the top floor being the same as on the first floor. The stairs are narrow and barely sufficient for the service of two stories. Contrast the dark and damp rooms and winding, slippery stairs of these old closes with a modern twelve-story building and you will have a good conception of the real character of the present type. The rapid development of types is a characteristic of American life, and the tower-like structure has exhibited this in a striking way. So rapidly have the owners of land in the crowded business portions of Chicago and New York recognized the possibilities of new methods of construction and improved mechanical accessories that the aspect of these neighborhoods has changed completely, whole sections having been covered with structures ten or more stories higher than the ordinary business building. The effect on the city's silhouette is as if some volcanic force had raised the crust of the earth, carrying the building with it and forming a low hill; or it might be likened to some specially fertilized spot in a garden, where the plants have suddenly grown up above the surrounding vegetation.

The façades present most interesting and frequently most startling effects—some dignified and modest, others fantastic and gorgeous in ornamentation, many absolutely commonplace in their piling up of stories.

The task of designing a properly expressive front for a building fifty feet wide and three hundred feet high is a difficult one, owing to the column-like proportions. None of the architectual styles which have survived to the present has in it any of the elements which make it applicable to the problem. The present materials and methods of construction are so radically different from the masonry upon which all architectural precedent is based that the application of such precedents to the new conditions has resulted in most instances in unexpressive or misleading combinations of material. Many architects have attempted to so arrange their designs as to lessen the apparent height of their buildings, and some of their designs are attractive for their ingenuity if not for their grace.

That this problem of design should not have been solved at once is not surprising, nor should we be too censorious of the architects. It was necessary to experiment and this has been done boldly; the results are steps in the right direction. It is probable that there will come out of this experimentation a distinctly different class of design having new forms and expressing new characteristics.

In all the other divisions of his work on the new buildings the architect has been highly successful, for he has succeeded in so arranging his floor plans as to give to each tenant well-lighted and easily accessible rooms. This feature, combined with the very complete equipment in the appliances for ventilating, warming, telephoning, messenger service, thorough and courteous janitor service, and above all rapid and frequent elevators, makes the new buildings very attractive.



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An office in an upper story of a tall building has many advantages over a location near the street. The noises of the street that are so great an evil in the city are hardly noticeable; the air is infinitely purer and free from dust, the light is better, and there is generally a view over the roofs of adjoining buildings. There is a superb view of the bay from the upper stories of many of the down-town buildings in New York, and it makes the offices facing this not only very attractive esthetically but more valuable financially.

DAKOTA APARTMENT HOUSE, NEW YORK.

A distinguished French critic who recently visited America has suggested that the literary worker and the artist will find in the top story of these tall buildings the ideal places for their workshops. Certainly there is tradition enough to justify the poet and painter in dwelling thus in the garret, even though an unsympathetic and Philistine

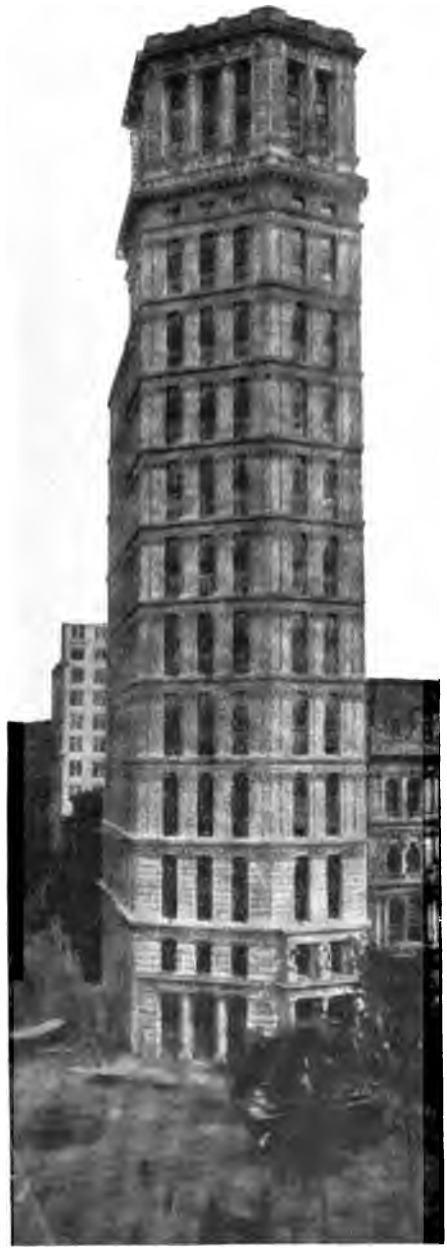
THE ASTORIA, A PART OF THE WALDORF HOTEL, NEW YORK.

landlord should force upon them such unclassic conditions as light, warmth, and other comforts.

The testimony of the tenants of these buildings is almost unanimous that the higher stories are the more desirable, and in corroboration of this may be cited the fact that a tenant rarely moves down; the tendency is decidedly upward.

Although the modern high building is in plan, design, and construction entirely unique, it has developed so gradually from the precedent and ordinary forms that the dividing line is difficult to locate.

The primary reason for extending the number of stories in buildings was undoubtedly the increasing demand for offices in the financial and legal centers of the larger cities. The districts which custom and convenience had set apart for these purposes were limited, hence the value of land in these sections rose and it became necessary for the purposes of profit to obtain more rent; this was naturally to be accomplished by increasing the number of rentable rooms, which could only be added at the top.



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TWENTY-FIVE STORIES.

Some of the old buildings which were well constructed were thus enlarged by adding one or two stories. The demand for office accommodations still increasing, it became profitable to remove old and comparatively inexpensive buildings and erect new structures of six and seven stories. The limiting condition at this time was the muscle and time consumed in reaching the top floors. A climb of six stories was too much to be done more than twice a day, and so much of a task that it repelled clients and customers. The elevator of the period was not efficient, being an improved form of windlass, slow and jerky in movement and too much of an experiment to be regarded with confidence by the timid. The need of a better machine was sufficiently obvious, and then began the rapid and radical changes in this, beginning with an increase in the speed of the windlass or drum and the addition of numerous safety appliances and brakes.

The elevator-maker has always striven to inspire in the minds of the climbing public confidence in his apparatus, and has so far succeeded that no one is now reluctant to enter the car of a high-speed elevator that runs at the rate of six hundred feet per minute. The last forms of elevators for high duty are of two general types, the most usual form being the hydraulic piston, which, operated by water pressure in the cylinder, pulls the steel hoisting rope over a series of pulleys, thus producing a high speed at the car end of the rope. The other form is the old drum type, operated at a high speed by an electric motor which is connected directly to the drum. With the in-

THE W. C. T. U. TEMPLE, CHICAGO.

crease in speed has come great complications in the machinery and a multiplication of safety stops and other precautions. The result is a highly sensitive apparatus needing constant attention and frequent repairs, but rarely failing in any serious degree. The accidents which occasionally occur are generally on the older machines.

The elevator has been dwelt upon because its development more than any other factor has made the modern high building different from its predecessors.

The changes in methods of construction have been numerous and rapid, resulting in a structure which, resembling an ordinary building in appearance, really differs from it as a wooden building differs from an adobe hut. A masonry building is constructed on the simple lines of pier, arch, and lintel, with floors supported on beams of wood or iron. The modern tall building is in no sense a masonry structure, but a complicated organism with a metal skeleton and a covering of masonry.

The beginning of the revolution in construction is to be found in the long-existing practice of supporting on iron the masonry walls over the glass fronts of shops. As the design of commercial buildings progressed it was found convenient or necessary to carry the brick walls which divided the building in the upper stories on iron girders, to leave the lower floor unobstructed. These girders also carried the weight of the floors, the entire weight being thus transferred to the outer walls. Where the distance to be spanned was inconveniently long, iron columns were introduced in the middle of this space and two short girders used in place of the long one. As the building became higher the weight of floors and partition walls thus transferred to the outer walls became so great that a scheme was evolved for supporting all of the interior of the building on the iron columns, by using them not only in the middle spaces but also at the ends of the girders and floor beams. There was

then a complete framework of iron very similar to the timber frame of a wooden house; outside of this a shell of masonry was built, having no real structural connection with the inner and hidden frame, and supporting only itself. The final step was not a long one and was to place the outer columns in the wall and support the wall on beams crossing from column to column at each story. This change was an important one to the owner, as the masonry wall extending from the foundation to the top of a tenth-story building was so thick at the bottom that it encroached seriously upon the rentable space in the lower stories—an important consideration when the rent per square foot rose to five and six dollars.

Very early in the development of the metal frame several disastrous fires demonstrated that an unprotected column or beam of steel was hardly more fire proof than a similar member of wood; indeed an eminent insurance man has declared that the wood is preferable as it will resist the onset of the flame for a longer period than an equally strong piece of steel.

Hence the steel frame of a modern building is wrapped and swaddled in brick or fireproof terra-cotta to such an extent that not a bit of it is visible; it is as thoroughly hidden as the bones of an animal. The floors are also of fire-proof construction, the usual method being to fill the spaces between the floor beams with an arch of brick or terra-cotta. Over this is a filling of mortar and on this the marble or wood flooring is laid. These fire-proof floors are usually twelve inches in thickness and as they extend to and connect with the outer walls of the building they form a solid and thick platform through which no fire could pass. They are, however, pierced by the elevator and stair wells and these are the danger points. That the fireproofing is successful is attested by the fact that the average insurance rate on the new buildings is about one half that on the old buildings in the same locality.

The general tendency of the changes in methods of construction has been in the direction of reducing the use of masonry and increasing the use of metal. This has led to a great extension of the steel-making industries and to the production of a great variety of forms that are used almost exclusively for building purposes.

It has, moreover, made a new engineering field and the architectural engineer is now as well recognized as a specialist as the mining engineer. His duties are responsible and difficult, though his part of the general operation is more susceptible of satisfactory execution than that of his co-worker, the architect.

The problems of construction are not very simple when they contain such factors as single columns carrying a load of two thousand tons, and the wind pressures which are exerted against a wall rising three hundred feet above the street. The seriousness of the task has been very generally recognized and the vital failure of a high building has yet to occur.

Most of these tower-like structures have no perceptible vibration in the wind and their framework successfully carries the enormous weights imposed on them.

It is difficult to comprehend the amount of material which goes into the building; to say that there is three thousand tons' weight does not convey any definite amount to the mind. The load is frequently so great that the earth will not sustain it, though the weight be distributed over the entire space covered by the building. This piling up of weights has made it necessary to adapt to the builders' use the thorough and elaborate methods of securing foundations which have heretofore been used only in the building of heavy bridges. If the earth is not sufficiently firm to bear the load an effort is made to reach the bed-rock underneath.

When this is more than sixty feet below the surface it becomes too expensive an operation and other means of supporting the building are resorted to. At depths less than sixty feet the earth is excavated and heavy masonry piers are built, resting directly upon the rock. As the constant water level in the earth is always above the rock, and would flow in and fill the excavated pit, the excavating and building of masonry must be done in a pneumatic caisson,

which is an elaborate application of the principle of the diving-bell, with this imporant variation, that the pressure of air in the bell or working chamber is increased by an air-compressor to a sufficient degree to exclude water and mud that would otherwise rush in.

When the caisson has sunk to the bed-rock, it is filled with masonry and becomes a part of the permanent foundation. Above and on this the brick or stone pier is built to the level of the cellar floor, and from there the steel columns start.

In Chicago the soil condition differs so much from the ordinary that an entirely unique method is used. The bed-rock is more than one hundred feet below the surface, which is too deep to reach without unprofitable expenditure. The weight of the entire building is accordingly distributed over the entire surface covered by the buildings, by the use of a very heavy and stiff floor or platform on the edge of which the walls or columns rest. The building then becomes practically a huge box with sides, top, and bottom, the bottom being the heaviest and most important part. The soil is spongy and yielding to such an extent that the building settles into it, sometimes to the depth of eight inches. The wonderful feature of this work is the scientific exactness with which the weight of the building is distributed to produce an absolutely even settlement.

That the enormous buildings which are characteristic of Chicago stand on a loose cushion of mud is a startling proposition, yet entirely true and by experience proven to be a safe condition. That this tremendous obstacle in the way of substantial building has been so successfully overcome is one of the great triumphs of engineering and architecture.

Although the constructional methods and the elevators of a tall building are the most strikingly novel features, there are a multitude of other departments that are sufficiently new and ingenious to warrant special attention.

All of the arrangements for heating, ventilating, lighting, plumbing, etc., have been so infinitely complicated by the increased heights that special apparatus has been developed in each department to meet the new requirements.

The electrical system in a modern building is of itself so extensive and complicated that it becomes a separate and independent plant containing within itself all the apparatus necessary to light the building and operate the elevators, ventilating fans, and other machinery that may be necessary. As the necessity for making these buildings fire proof is imperative, all of this distribution of electrical force must be done with great care to avoid the breaking loose of the dangerous current. The best and now generally used method is to carry heavily coated or insulated wires in iron tubes similar to gas-piping.

If we could with a mammoth X-ray apparatus photograph the electrical system of a great building we would have an impression of an organism very similar to the nervous system of a man, with the room where the great dynamos are generating the electric current as the ganglion.

A wonderfully complex and "finiky" arrangement of messenger calls, telephones, and electric temperature regulators has been developed, and these electric nerves come to the surface in labeled push-buttons at every turn.

The heating plant and the plumbing appliances have been very much improved to meet the new conditions, but the difficulties which have been overcome in these departments relate chiefly to the mechanical details and are not apparent to the users except in the improved efficiency.

The rooms are always sufficiently warmed and there is always hot and cold water at the basin. Every detail looking toward the comfort and health of the tenants is provided and the buildings are therefore tremendously attractive and the number of such buildings will increase, though more slowly in the future.

Owing to the rapid increase in the past, the tendency has been frequently referred to as the "high-building craze." It is not a mania, as it originated in a natural demand for room, and it was taken up with zeal by real-estate owners because they found

that they could largely increase the earnings of their land.

As the new methods developed, the cost per cubic foot of enclosed buildings was much reduced, until it is now possible to build a modern first-class building for thirty-four cents per cubic foot whereas the old buildings of the first class cost as much as two dollars per foot.

It is probable that we have reached the practical limit of height and that there will not be many new buildings above twenty stories high. There is at present building in New York a structure of thirty stories, but the advisability of this height is doubted by real-estate experts on the question of profit.

The down-town streets of New York resemble deep cañons, stifling in summer, exceedingly drafty in winter, and generally shadowed by the cliff-like buildings on either side. This aspect of the matter constitutes the principal objection to this type of building, but as it will undoubtedly be regulated by statute very soon, we may expect to see that class which some one has called "the modern cliff-dwellers" increase at a moderate rate.

GOETHE: HIS LIFE AND WORK.

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TO comprehend the magnitude and influence of Goethe's work it is well to look at the condition of German letters before his day, and we should also contemplate the times and circumstances in which he lived and worked.

In the seventeenth century, when French literature rose to her great classical period with the productions of Corneille, Molière, and Racine,[1] literary activity in Germany was wrecked by the scourge of the Thirty Years' War. As a result of this war and its attendant disease, Germany lost well-nigh half her population, and the other half was left in poverty and despair. The national spirit was broken, the country lay prostrate, and generation after generation has been necessary to revive her. The petty princes were dazzled by the pomp of Louis XIV., and they imitated the court at Versailles. Customs, morals, language, and literature passed under the worst of French influence, and French became the language of the courts and of society. Under such circumstances no real literature could be produced, and, when the country began to revive, the literary products were so closely modeled after foreign examples that a century was required for the literature to become national.

This awakening occupied the first three quarters of the eighteenth century, and although among the leaders of the first half of the century there was not one of great and original genius, they took a paralyzed literature, gave it some new life, and thus prepared the way for the glorious epoch soon to follow. The leaders of the third quarter, Klopstock and Lessing, were men of genius, and they thoroughly Germanized literary activity. The movement they inaugurated, however, in the hands of younger men soon passed into an extreme of stormy tumult and commotion, a revolt against the established order of state and society. The leaders of this "storm and stress"[2] movement were disciples of Rousseau, whose gospel of nature spread like wild-fire over Germany.

The height of this period was attained during the seventies and eighties; just when Goethe was through with his university life, and when his literary activity was budding. Naturally he became attached to the party of "originality and genius," and his early works are full of that spirit; but he soon outgrew these youthful fancies and quickly developed into the strong, manly character that forms the center of the greatest period that Germany has ever known.

Such was the condition of German literature. Let us now look at the times of Goethe and at his endowments. His intellect was broad, ruling, and calm from its very vastness and strength. He was royally endowed by nature, and everything that cultured surroundings and easy circumstances could give him enabled him to make free and unbounded use of his power. He had the advantage of being born when the world was agitated by great movements, which continued during his long life, so that he was a living witness of the Seven Years' War in Germany, the American Revolution, the French Revolution, the whole Napoleonic era, with the downfall of that hero and the events which followed. Thus he attained results and insight impossible to those who had to learn these things from books.

Goethe was born at Frankfort-on-the-Main in 1749. His father, an educated man, was imperial councilor and had a good fortune. His mother was the daughter of the town magistrate, and just the ideal woman for a poet's mother. His early education was gained under his father's personal supervision, and at the age of sixteen he began the study of law at the University of Leipsic, where he remained until 1769. Failing to become interested in law, he devoted most of his time to society, the theater, travel, and the study of art. His health was seriously undermined and during his long convalescence at home he busied himself with reading, drawing, and performing experiments in alchemy, but paid no attention to law studies. To bring his mind back to his profession his father sent him in 1770 to the University of Strasburg. His most important acquaintance here was that with Herder,[3] who led him to study the old folk-songs, Homer, and Shakespeare. After obtaining his degree he returned to Frankfort and was admitted to the bar, but paid little attention to the practice of his profession. Being invited to deliver the oration at a Shakespeare celebration, he took the opportunity to express his ideas about poetry in general, and to announce Shakespeare as his ideal.

His first important work was "Götz von Berlichingen,"[4] an historical drama based on the life of this hero of the Peasants' War.[5] Appearing at first without the author's name, it aroused all Germany, and when the authorship became known Goethe was suddenly made popular throughout the Fatherland.

Of more importance, however, was his second great work, "The Sorrows of Werther," which has for its background his own experience at Wetzlar. Here he became passionately in love with Charlotte Buff, who was already engaged to another man; but he had the strength of character to tear himself away and leave the two undisturbed in their devotion. The suicide of an acquaintance on account of disappointment in his love of a married woman suggested to Goethe what might possibly have been the result if he had not resisted the temptation in time. Such were the two experiences underlying the novel that startled all Europe. Filled with the spirit of storm and stress, and permeated with Rousseauism, it is a melancholy book and may be said to be the outcome of the disease of the times, and not a struggle against it. Yet with all its gloom, it is written in a style unsurpassed in German literature.

His newly established reputation led to frequent visits from great men, chief among whom were the two young princes of Weimar, who invited him to their home for a visit—a visit which lasted nearly sixty years. This was the most important change in his whole external life, for it established his position, and his friendship with the young duke made the latter such a patron of poetry that Weimar soon became the literary center of Germany. The duke and his friend formed an hilarious pair, and at first there reigned in the little court a rather wild and wanton life; unrestrained pleasures of all sorts and theatrical representations followed in rapid succession, and the soul of them all was the young poet guest. He was appointed privy councilor and later president of the chamber, and for a decade managed the affairs of the government with devotion and faithfulness. He was director of the duke's theater, wrote dramas for special occasions, drilled the court troupe,

consisting of the gentlemen and ladies of the court, and himself played with remarkable success.

But court life and official occupation could not long satisfy him, for his poetic activity was stagnating. His longing for Italy became stronger and stronger, and thither he went in 1788 to remain for nearly two years. Here he cast from him the last portions of the storm and stress period of his life; his contemplation of art and nature became clear and rose to the highest ideals, and his poetic ability once more became aroused to great activity. On his return to Weimar the position offered him by the duke was that of a friend whose only duties should be those he wished to lay upon himself, but in spite of these gratifying circumstances he could not become perfectly satisfied with his German surroundings.

The three dramas "Iphigenie auf Tauris," "Egmont," and "Torquato Tasso," although planned long before his going to Italy, were completed there or immediately after his return, and they all bear the stamp of classic influence. The first and third are among the best dramatic poems in any language, but neither is suited to the stage and neither will be generally appreciated, except by poets. "Egmont" was a theatrical success and is still acted more frequently than any of his other dramas.

The author's genius as it appeared in these dramas was everywhere felt, but it disturbed and offended rather than gave delight. He was alone: Klopstock's friendship waned, Herder became jealous and sensitive, Schiller could not comprehend him, Wieland,[6] ever a warm friend, was unable to give him sympathetic support, and the general public, whom "Werther" fifteen years before had carried by storm, no longer found interest in him.

Although Goethe was skilful in concealing his feelings about such matters, the cool reception of these works, added to his uncongenial surroundings, made him discouraged about literary work and accounts for the dearth of literary productions during the next few years and for his devotion to science. Although he cannot be counted as one of the great scientists, his contributions to human knowledge have been of much importance and positive influence, and these studies were beneficial in his own development. He was not an inductive experimentalist, but rather a scientific philosopher, a discoverer of great laws and relations, which he proved by particular phenomena. His osteological study led to the discovery of the intermaxillary bone, his work in botany resulted in the really important treatise "Metamorphoses of Plants," and for a while his "Science of Colors" was accepted as authoritative, though it has long since been refuted.

The year 1794 brought a change, for then it was that Goethe and Schiller became united, not merely as friends, but as partners in literature. A little later Schiller moved to Weimar, and the bond between them was sealed—to be broken only by Schiller's death in 1805. At once Schiller's creative spirit led his friend back to poetry. Goethe had long been struggling with his "Wilhelm Meister's Apprenticeship" and Schiller's friendly criticism of the work led him to complete it. In lyric poetry, too, the old spirit returned, for as Schiller produced in rapid succession his beautiful ballads, Goethe found once more the inspiration of his youth and added to his early songs some of the richest gems in the language.

The first great product of this reinspiration was "Hermann and Dorothea," which restored its author's popularity and declared to the literary circles his real power. The year in which this poem was written was one of great anxiety in Germany, and was one of the most eventful in the French Revolution. The whole picture of the struggle was before him as he wrote; the numerous scenes suggested by those exciting years cannot be limited to any one period. Some French emigrants who had been driven from Würzburg, whither they had fled, became scattered around Eisenach and Weimar. These emigrants reminded the author of an old story of the love of a well-to-do young man for an emigrant maiden and his plan for winning her. This story Goethe took,

changed it to suit his fancy, added a few characters, and made it a mirror in which are reflected the movements and the changes of the stormy times of the great Revolution so perfectly familiar to the German people. The poem is one of the most powerful as well as one of the most charming of the author's great works. It is merely a love story of the most humble kind, except as the characters are transfigured by their connection with the Revolution. It is the product of a free-and-easy artistic effort, and it can be thoroughly enjoyed without much in the way of introduction and commentary.

Goethe was so affected by Schiller's death that he again lost for a time his interest in literature, and his loneliness was only increased by the sad events of the next few years. The battle of Jena in 1806 brought to Weimar humiliation and suffering, and in 1808 the poet's mother died. His first important publication after Schiller's death was the novel "Elective Affinities," the title of which is borrowed from the language of chemistry, and embodied in which are many of Goethe's ideas about marriage.

During the years 1811–17 he wrote his autobiography under the title of "Fact and Fiction," which gives the story of his life up to the time he went to Weimar; and, although many events are changed to suit his fancy, the work gives a fine picture of the man and the times in which he lived. At a time when it was supposed that his poetic activity had departed, he sought relief from the annoyances of the Napoleonic oppression by giving himself up to the study of eastern poetry. The result is the "West-Eastern Divan," a series of poems in eastern dress, but really German in form and content, in which he wished to bring the East and West together.

"Faust" was completed in the poet's eightieth year and may be called his life-work. Even at his home in Frankfort the boy, as he was studying alchemy, had given serious thought to this subject. Even there he became acquainted with the folks-book of Dr. Faust, and later saw the same theme presented as a puppet show. The year 1772 he designates as the birth-year of the drama. He had just finished his studies at Strasburg, and from that time on the grand production was ever before him and he wrote the various scenes as they individually attracted him.

The First Part appeared in 1808, and, although the poet regarded this as merely a fragment, sixteen years passed before he resumed work on the Second Part, which was finally completed in 1831. Thus the poem compasses the whole life of its author, from boyhood to gray-haired old age, and however much personal experiences may be there portrayed, they are at the same time the experiences common to every thoughtful, investigating, struggling man. It may well be called the drama of modern times.

The drama opens with a "Prologue in Heaven," where, accompanying three archangels who come to praise the Lord, is Mephistopheles, the wicked fallen spirit, who ridicules man, and especially Dr. Faust, whom the Lord acknowledges as his servant. He wagers that if the Lord will not forbid it he will lead Faust in his way. The Lord makes no prohibition, but states that a good man, though in his strivings he may waver, is cognizant of the true way. Thus the plot becomes the struggle between the spirit of evil personified in Mephistopheles and the original element of goodness in Faust. Faust, a professor grown gray in the search for knowledge, has become so thoroughly disgusted with all human striving that he is about to take his own life, but is checked by youthful recollections about religion. During these reflections Mephistopheles appears and promises to satisfy his thirst for knowledge and make him happy. His reward is to be Faust's soul in the next life, and the moment Faust acknowledges that he is happy and contented, then this life is to cease for him. From this point on the whole drama is a series of experiences into which Faust is led to see if he cannot be made happy. They first go on a tour of carousing, but Faust is thoroughly disgusted. Faust is then made young again and led into a mad love for Margaret, who, falling a victim to his passion, is ruined. She becomes guilty of matricide and later of in-

fanticide, and finally, bereft of her reason, she is condemned to death.

This is all that most people know of "Faust," but the evolution of the great plan is merely begun. Of all the experiences common to men, Faust has been led to love, and in this he has been so tormented by conscience and remorse that the moment of perfect happiness has not yet come to him. The compact with Mephistopheles still continues; he has not yet won his wager. When the two started to see the world they were to see first the "little world" and then the "greater world." The former, meaning the experiences, emotions, and passions of individuals, is portrayed in the First Part; the latter, meaning the experiences of life in a broader field of activity, among men, and in stations where one's influence is felt by thousands or by a whole race, is represented in the Second Part.

Goethe believed that moral wounds could be healed, and that the best means for such healing was the influence of time and of nature. He believed, too, that the best atonement for wrong committed was not to be made by brooding over it, but by being restored to cheerfulness and courage and hope. After a long interval Faust is represented as having recovered from the shock at Margaret's fate, and amid the beauties of Alpine scenery he has found his better self once more and devotes himself and all of Mephistopheles' power to doing good for others. As a reward for his services to an emperor he is given a large tract of coast land. This he reclaims from the sea, drains it, colonizes it, and in the anticipation of the moment when the very last part of it shall have become the dwelling-place of a happy, contented people he acknowledges that he is perfectly happy. At this moment he drops dead, and Mephistopheles summons his dark angels to carry the soul to the lower regions. Just as they are about to perform their duty a band of heavenly angels comes in such splendor that Mephistopheles and his messengers are abashed. While they stand gazing in wonder, the angels carry Faust's body heavenward, singing as they rise:

The noble spirit now is free,
And saved from evil scheming.
Whoe'er aspires unweariedly
Is not beyond redeeming.
And if he feels the grace of love
That from on high is given,
The blessed hosts that wait above,
Shall welcome him to heaven!

These words, giving us the elements of Faust's salvation, are in perfect harmony with the Lord's statement at the beginning:

Then stand abashed, when thou art forced to say:
A good man, through obscurest aspiration,
Has still an instinct of the one true way.

The last scene in the drama takes place in heaven, where Margaret appears as forgiven and saved, waiting to welcome her lover.

This creation stands alone in the literary world. There is nothing with which it can be justly compared. No other work like this is a life-work, dealing with the profoundest problems of all life. It is comprehensive and universal, and every reader finds there reflections of his own faith and philosophy. In it all the best qualities of the author appear—his varying rhythm, his wonderful handling of passion, his simple realism, his cutting irony, his deepest philosophy, and his highest aspirations.

When Goethe finished "Faust" he regarded his work on earth as ended, and whatever of time was allotted him he called a mere gift. The poet companions of his prime manhood had long since died, his wife was taken in 1816, Karl August died in 1828, and soon thereafter Goethe's only son, leaving him alone, the sole representative of a bygone age. Yet he was still grand and erect in body, and his intellect showed no signs of decay.

He was one of the handsomest men that ever lived, and fourscore years were unable to bend his figure or dim the beauty of his dark brown eyes. It looked as though he might complete a century, but some hidden part was worn out, and he died rather suddenly on March 22, 1832.

As a general rule men succeed best when they concentrate their energies in some one direction; but Goethe was just the opposite of this—the more he extended the field of

his activities, the more splendid was his achievement. In literary history Shakespeare stands preeminent as a dramatist and Homer as an epic writer, but Goethe towers above all others in the universality of his genius, in the highest equal development of all the powers of the human mind.

His fancy and imagination were boundless, but they never became separated from real form and fact. He called all his works fragments of a great confession, and certain it is that he used every possible form of personal experience, but never until the feeling had passed and the experience become a memory. This accounts for the due proportion in all his verse; the deepest, keenest emotions are expressed, but the author is calm and serene. He treats the experience that once was his as now no part of him. This has led to his being called cold and unsympathetic, while in reality it is the highest achievement of art. As a poet of nature he stands almost without an equal, painting not in a mere catalogue of forms, but with all the influences of light and odor and atmosphere and perspective.

As a dramatist he stands second only to Shakespeare; he founded the art of novel-writing in Germany; "Hermann and Dorothea" stands in the foremost rank with modern epics; his broad knowledge of philosophy almost makes him the compeer of Kant, Fichte, and Hegel; his scientific investigations entitle him to a worthy place among those who have contributed to the world's knowledge; and his countless gems of poetry and song elevate him to the first place among the lyric poets of the world.

Thus he stands in German literature as the first and grandest figure, and also one of the greatest in the literature of the world. More than any other person he unites in perfect harmony nature and art, life and poetry, form and content. In him the great classical period reached its height, and if we compare him with the other prominent men of this period we see that in him were united the best qualities of all the rest—Klopstock's ability to enrich the language, Lessing's clearness of vision and bold individuality, Wieland's elegance and grace, Herder's universality, and Schiller's rhythm and rhetoric.

THE PHYSICAL CHANGES OF AUTUMN.

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THE literatures of all northern peoples abound in poetic descriptions of the autumn. These delineations of the waning season are usually mournful in their tone, their motive being well represented by our American name for the time—the fall. This word, derived from the homely English which indicates the down-going of life and expectancy, sums up in an admirable way the more visible physical and moral aspects of the time. It fails, however, to take account of the deeper-lying facts which the naturalist discovers, facts which go far to incline the imagination from the sorrowful spirit in which our ancestors were wont to view the passage from summer to winter. Although the poet, if he is so minded—for his liberty with the subject is absolute—continues to display the imaginative and pessimistic side of autumnal phenomena in his verses, their prosaic aspect affords a very noble exhibition of the constructive power which guides this world.

In approaching the study of the seasons it is best to begin by considering the simple machinery on which their alternations depend. This is in general a matter of such common knowledge that it is not worth while to do more than recall it to the reader's mind by a brief statement. At the equator, where the sun is twice each year in the very center of the heavenly arch, and

where his path at no time departs far from the zenith, the seasonal variations of temperature, due to the slanting of the rays, is inconsiderable; it is about what we may notice between the 21st of June and the latter part of August. In the tropical realm, where the sun at some time comes overhead, there is a regular succession of rainfall and drought which has much the same effect upon the procession of life as has the alternation of cold and warmth in the realms nearer the poles.

In the regions beyond the tropics, and in increasing measure with the latitude, the succession of the seasons becomes less determined by times and quantities of rain or snow and more by the temperature. The lower the sun goes in the winter, except so far as the climate may be affected by the ocean streams, the more absolute the control exercised by the cold which ever endures in the realm above the surface of the earth. Under the equator the air is permanently heated beyond the freezing-point to the height of about three miles above the level of the sea. Half-way to the poles, even in the summer-time, the outer cold drives the freezing plane a mile or more lower, and at the arctic circle the plane is but little above the level of the sea even when the sun is at the highest. In the winter it descends so low that were there a valley on that line depressed, as is the basin of the Dead Sea of Judea, below the level of the ocean, and to the depth of a mile, the descending plane of the outer cold would bear an ice-making temperature to its bottom.

The seasonal change which ushers in the winter of the northern hemisphere begins when the sun, having attained its most northern point, starts again on its journey toward the equator and thence toward the southern tropic. If our means of determining the average temperature of the air were as perfect as we would have them, the 22d day of June, the first after the summer solstice, would doubtless show a distinct lowering of the average heat of the air in our half of the sphere and a diminution of the total temperature of freezing nearer to the earth. Owing, however, to the heat-storing capacity of the earth, particularly to the water of the sea and land, the warmth near the surface increases, it may be for some weeks after the upper air begins to cool. Soon, however, the lengthening nights discharge this superficial heat, a process which is favored as the summer charge of moisture in the air is sent down to the earth in the autumnal rains.

As the sun's progress toward the winter goes forward, the store of heat which has been laid up in the earth in the summer is gradually discharged. Near the tropics this annual inpenetration of heat extends in favorable conditions to the depth of twenty feet or more; near the arctic circle it is commonly limited to three or four feet, beneath which level the water of the earth is commonly locked in perpetual frost, a condition which may continue downward for several hundred feet to the point where the heat flowing out from the central parts of the sphere is able to overbalance the effects of the outer cold. The same action goes on in the seas and lakes, so that all the earth's surface has a share in this storing and yielding heat, with the result that the advance and recession of the summer temperature are made the slower and in every way the better for the interests of life.

When the summer wanes, those who are so fortunate as to have high mountains within view may trace the advance of the refrigeration of the air in the gradual descent of the white robe of winter. If the perpetual snow-line be at the height of, say ten thousand feet, the downward march of the sheet may often be noted before the first of August; after that date its descent may, if then frequent storms occur, be traced from week to week until the refrigeration passes into the valleys and proceeds to enter the earth beneath them.

The purely physical effects of the advent of winter are few and of simple nature; they depend for their occurrence mainly on the effect of the lowering temperature upon the water lying in and upon the surface of the earth, but in some small measure on the mineral matter of the rocks and soil.

The mineral elements of the outer earth follow the general rule that they contract in a constant and uniform manner with a decrease of heat, with the result that as the season wanes the hard part of the earth gradually, though in no great measure, shrinks. Some geological effect is thus induced; granites and other massive rocks often show broad plate-like ruptures which are evidently produced by the annual expansions and contractions to which they have been subjected for long ages.

By far the most important physical change that comes with the cold is due to the singular effects of temperature on water; effects which are to be noted far and wide in the organic and inorganic history of the earth. As the temperature of water is lowered it undergoes a progressive shrinkage down to near the freezing-point, with some irregularities which do not here concern us; at the freezing-point it suddenly expands, increasing in bulk by about one ninth of its volume in the unfrozen state. The effect of this action is great and far-reaching. So far as the water is in the crevices of the rocks, it tends to rift the masses apart; in this manner it not only breaks up the superficial beds of mineral materials in a large way but acts still further to divide the finest bits of the soil.

Although the immediate effect of freezing is to endow water with a peculiar activity, the secondary and enduring influence of this action is to arrest all the work it does in its fluid state. It no longer is at work in the manifold tasks of taking up and laying down substances; it enters upon a period of rest which, except it be in a glacier or an iceberg, endures until its melting time in the forthcoming summer. Thus while the soil in its unfrozen state is a great chemical laboratory in which those wonderful processes of decomposition and remaking of substances is going forward in a myriad different ways, in its frozen state all these actions which have for their most important result the preparation of food for the plants is entirely arrested. Here, however, there comes in one of those cross actions which so abound in nature. Until the snow falls the frost enters the ground. Where the winter mantle becomes thick it acts as a blanket, protecting the earth from the cold; then, in all regions which do not have the deeper earth permanently frozen, the warmth of the depth works upward so that the soil is thawed out again and the chemical forces have a chance to act. So perfect is this defrosting that when the snow goes away in the springtime many species of plants may be found in a fresh and growing state; when they are exposed to the air certain kinds may be found in bloom.

In North America, as in all the great lands which are so placed as to feel in a large measure the seasonal changes of temperature, the atmospheric phenomena of the autumn are very interesting. The close observer notes even before the surface temperature has become lowered that the upper air is cooling. The clouds no longer ride so high above the earth; the blue of the heavens is less tinged with the vapor of water; the skies have a harder look, as if of burnished steel. At a certain time there arrives a season which we term Indian summer, when in this country, at least, there is a period when over a wide realm the air becomes for a considerable time almost motionless, the impulses which led to the occasional storms of summer have died away, and the winter cyclones have not begun to develop and to reach to the eastward in their due order. This, the Indian summer of America, the less characteristic summer of St. Martin in Europe, is perhaps the most beautiful atmospheric phenomenon attendant on the passage of our seasons.

Manifold as are the purely physical changes which attend the coming of winter, they are of small account as compared with those exhibited by organic life. As we pass the high noon of the year, hundreds of thousands of species of animals and plants alike, which a few days before were in all the exuberance of life, begin their preparation for their annual repose—for the sleep of winter. The plants hasten to ripen and sow their seeds; the greater number of the kinds strip off their leaves, harden the

tender shoots of the year's growth, send down their sap, become in a way so lifeless that the frosts which in August would have been deadly are in no way dangerous in October. Those plants which spring to blooming in the autumn and all the species of the high North manage to do all their season's work in a few weeks; in certain cases a short month is all they need for their round from flower to ripened seed.

Among the animals we observe the same preparation for the autumn that is seen among the plants. The relatively few species of birds and mammals have less to fear from the impending winter because of their warm blood; they and their young are by their internal heat protected from the most immediate evils of the cold season. Still their life is organized for the highest activity in the summer half of the year. Then they bring forth their young and gather their store of fat for the winter supply of fuel. Then those which fill garners of provision for the winter set about storing the nuts and seeds. As winter comes on they limit their activities; they, with the exception of the Carnivora, the hunters, usually retire to the forests, or, if they be small, to the under earth, there to await again the freedom of another summer.

Many of the mammals make the winter a time of deep and enduring sleep. Of this the best instance is the bats, which, because of their thin membranous wings and their insect food, are forced in the winter to withdraw from all activities. Those who dwell in winter lands where there are caverns may see these bats gathering at the close of summer in the recesses of the caves. Even before the frosts begin to come these creatures seek the chambers where the temperature is essentially changeless. Guided by we know not what sense, they fly far into the cave, and there, seeking skilfully in the darkness, find some rough place on the ceiling to which they cling by their sharp hooked toes; then folding their wings about them they quickly fall into a sleep so deep that it is deathlike in its character, from which they awake when spring revisits the fields above their refuge. The bears, the opossums, hedgehogs, and other mammals have more or less of this habit of taking a long rest in the winter season, a repose that goes beyond the limits of sleep as we commonly know it. So, too, the lower vertebrates, the reptiles and fishes, betake themselves to their hiding-places in the earth or the waters and drowse the dark half of the year away. Even the ruder tribes of men in high latitudes generally abandon their activities in the coldest months, in a measure imitating the lower life in the habit of resting in this natural season of repose.

With the insect world the adjustment to winter goes even further than with the vertebrates; scarcely one of ten thousand species which are in activity in the summer keeps alive beyond the first frosts. Shortly after the solstice they begin to prepare for the inevitable end of their brief life. Their eggs are laid in the places where they may best be secured from accident during the months in which they await the call of the sun to awaken them to life. This task is often most wonderfully well done; the nests or clusters of eggs are so placed that the young may have food at hand with the least possible journeying to seek it. In some cases the cell in which the egg is to hatch is filled with a suitable provision for the nurture of the grub; in the case of the mud wasp this store consists of spiders so stung by the mother wasp that they are benumbed with the poison yet remain alive. These contrivances by which insects arrange to have the life of their kind conveyed across the direst of winters are innumerable. They all show an admirable accomodation of structure and habit to this recurrent need.

In the lower invertebrate life the same adjustment of habit to the season of cold is everywhere very well established; the molluscs, the jellyfishes, the echini, the starfishes, and even the yet lower forms usually accommodate themselves to the change and even anticipate it by seeking places where they may be sheltered, or they deal with the problem as do the insects, by anticipating death for themselves, with a pro-

vision for their young to remain as eggs through the winter.

The most beautiful accommodation of life to the conditions of winter is seen mainly if not almost altogether in the habit which the greater number of the species of birds—those at least which dwell in high latitudes—have adopted in their annual migrations. Theirs is the singular privilege of journeying with the sun as it sways from one tropic to the other. To this end they sometimes take each year double journeys each of four or five thousand miles in length, along definite paths and sometimes over wide seas. They are thus freed from the trials and dangers of the dark part of the year—a grace they owe to their strong wings and to an inherited memory of the chances of the wide earth over which their ancestors ranged.

At first sight the adjustments of the habits of plants and animals to the winter season appear to be due altogether to the need of meeting the deadly effects of the winter cold. There is evidence at hand which shows that this is not altogether the case. In the tropical realm, where the plants are not required by need of climate to enter on a period of sleep, they still, in most cases, do so, adjusting their rest time to the dry season, or if there be no distinct drought time they still have a period of more or less complete repose. So, too, with the insects of the tropics; each kind has usually a time of activity, followed by a rest time when the species slumbers in the eggs. The same is true of many other groups of animals in torrid regions; they are most active only in a part of each year, sometimes resting in periods of several months' duration. As the tropical realm has for all geological time been a region of nearly uniform temperature, we may regard this habit of repose as something quite disconnected with any experience of the winter's cold. It indicates the common need of all living things for long periods of repose; it is indeed one of the larger phenomena of sleep.

Sleep as we know it, as a daily intermission of activity, suffices for the peculiarly vigorous force-producing bodies of the highest animals. The lowlier creatures need, it appears, not only the repose of the night, but seasonal rests when the activities may be laid aside for periods of many weeks' duration. The complicated business of living clearly appears to be a grave tax on the machinery which is provided for it. In all save the more perfect forms the processes of the body have often to be slowed down or altogether intermitted while the egg or seed alone maintains the life of the kind. Thus viewed we may regard the apparent decay and multitudinous death of the autumn as not altogether due to the deadly influence of the winter's cold and darkness, but rather as an adjustment by which living creatures fit the conditions of their needed annual repose to the exigencies which the seasons of high latitudes impose upon them. The hosts of life are then marshaled with reference to their great enemy, the frost, but the process is not one of death, but is contrived to give fresh strength and new activity.

It is well to look upon the phenomena of the autumn from the point of view of the reconciliation of living beings to their environment. The living world at this season exhibits the most admirable series of phenomena of this nature. As one instance of this we may note how seldom it is that the seeds of any wild plant fail to ripen before the time of killing frosts. The processes of the plant are so arranged that it is ready in safe time, though none too soon. So, also, with the eggs of insects; they are all in order before the frosts arrive. With the plants as well, the new wood of those which are to live through the winter is ripened, often in a very brief time, in a measure to fit the coming need. All these preparations are made not under the whip of the frost but in anticipation of the necessity for them; in this we see a true reconciliation.

In the time to come the poet, if he says truly—and else he is no true poet—will sing of autumn not as a spectacle of untimely death, but as an ordering of action in which death takes its fit and admirable part; in which the individual life rests after it has made due preparation for the hereafter.

IMPERIAL GERMANY.

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GERMANY is not yet wholly a nation. In the ethnic sense Germany includes not only the empire of Kaiser Wilhelm, but also a large part of Austria and part of the Baltic provinces of Russia. But the Austrian Germans do not desire, and the Russian Germans do not hope, a pan-Teutonic union.

In the political sense Germany is yet imperfectly welded. The centrifugal effects of ages of discord have been in part overcome—so far as to unite a large share of the German lands under a common federal government in which Prussia is dominant. But the jealousies and the dislikes of centuries are by no means extinct. The Bavarian is in the empire not so much because of his love for the Prussian as because he dislikes the Frenchman more. The Catholic of Hanover and Würtemberg inherits from the Thirty Years' War a cordial disapproval of the North German Lutheran. The twenty-four small states of the federation are very slow to increase the powers of the federal government—which in the end means the powers of Prussia. There are no great national political parties, as in England and the United States. In the very constitution of the federation there is marked inequality of power and privilege among the constituent commonwealths.

All these and many other facts are marks of the imperfection of German national unity. They by no means imply political decadence or national disruption. On the contrary we know quite well that the tendency has been in the direction of union and solidarity, and that the triumphs of that tendency are among the great historic facts of the present century. The idea of German nationality only took definite shape among the storms and sufferings of the Napoleonic wars. It vanished almost during the time of reaction, when "the pernicious principle of nationality" was thought to be dangerous to the dominant principle of divine-right monarchy. "Italy," said Metternich at that time, "is only a geographical expression." Germany, he might have added, is merely the mark of an ethnic concept. The attempt to convert the ethnic fact into a political reality failed in 1848. The insurgents of that year had a double aim—national unity and political liberty. Either of these alone might perhaps have been realized. To achieve both at once, and that by men accustomed to self-government only in the dreams of the political philosopher, was an impossible task. Both failed of attainment—union utterly, liberty largely. Then came Bismarck and King William, who cared nothing for liberty and much for union. Their policy won. By force of arms the foreign Danes and the alien-entangled Austrian Germans were driven from German affairs. Thus Prussian expansion and a partial German federation were made possible. In 1870 a third non-German power, France, was driven out of German affairs and the Germanic federation was widened. Thus we have the German Empire of to-day—a magnified Prussia made possible by the definite expulsion of alien interference from the bulk of the German lands. The wars of 1864, 1866, and 1870 put an end to foreign interventions. Thus Prussia was able to lead in the formation of a German union.

The consolidation of that union can come only with the conquest of German national consciousness over the traditional German internal discord. The last quarter-century of German history is instructive as showing how far progress has been made through the collision of these forces.

First of all it is clear that the preservation of the political union which had been won, and hence of the prospect of the con-

solidation of a German national life, depended on preservation from foreign attack. Denmark, Austria, and France had been successively overcome. If their enmity should remain, a combination among them might some day be dangerous to the new empire. So the first aim of German foreign policy has steadily been to form such alliances as will secure peace. Thus far this policy has been uniformly successful.

Russia had ample reason for keeping aloof from Austria and France, and therefore had easily been induced by Prussia to remain neutral in 1866 and to prevent Austrian intervention in 1870. This was recompensed in the latter year by German assent to the abrogation by Russia of the Black Sea clauses of the treaty of 1856—clauses peculiarly irksome and humiliating to the czar. Thus one ally was at hand, and a powerful one.

Political conditions in Austria had changed since 1866, and so it soon proved possible to win Francis Joseph to the cause of Germany. The new political balance in Austria-Hungary, brought about by the reconstruction of the old empire and the formation of a new monarchy, with Austria and Hungary as equal partners, in 1867, together with the remote likelihood of any success attending the contrary policy, led the dual monarchy to join the league of peace. In 1872 the three monarchs met, and then, without a formal treaty, was formed the alliance of the three emperors. This for six years was a bulwark of the peace of Europe and sufficed to balk France of her revenge.

In 1877-78, however, came the war between Russia and Turkey. In the Balkans the interests of Austria were hopelessly opposed to those of the czar. The fierce opposition of England to the treaty of San Stefano led to the Congress of Berlin (1878), at which Bismarck presided. The new treaty there drafted despoiled Russia of a large part of her conquests, to the advantage of Turkey and Austria and England. And the sullen Russian held Germany responsible. Between her two allies Germany had sided with Austria. Thus ended the league of the three emperors.

But Bismarck was resourceful. In 1866 he had gained the alliance of Italy against Austria. He now induced the Italian Kingdom (1879) to unite with Germany and Austria in a league of peace—the Triple Alliance, which, renewed from time to time, has endured now for nearly twenty years. It is a guarantee against attack from either France or Russia, and thus far has sufficed to maintain the peace of Europe unbroken.

France, isolated by the policy of Bismarck and by the general dread of war, has in vain looked for help on all sides—for help to restore her provinces lost in 1871. Of late years she has been drawing near to Russia, and now the great republic and the great autocracy seem to have formed an alliance—in all probability merely a defensive one. War is the common dread of the nations. France might risk it if properly supported, but no other nation desires it.

These leagues of peace are supported by tremendous armaments. Every European nation keeps under arms as many men as possible, at vast cost. But they do not dare be outstripped in the race. So the German army to-day is far more powerful and efficient than when it took the field in 1870.

Besides defensive alliance, German foreign policy under the empire has had a second striking form—the acquisition of colonies and the building of a navy.

The great movement of modern times by which lands oversea have been settled and controlled by European people has until recently been limited to those whose homes border the Atlantic seaboard. From this colonial expansion Central Europe was cut off at its inception both by geographical situation and by political conditions.

It was only a few years after the creation of a German Empire that Africa was disclosed to the world as a desirable possession. In 1879 the African association opened the Congo valley to civilization, and then began the movement for the partition of the Dark Continent among the powers. German merchants were soon involved in the race for trade, and thus German attention was called to the possibilities beyond the ocean. Bismarck, at first opposed, was

slowly won to the policy of acquiring colonies, and in 1884 began the definite entrance of Germany into that field of action. The protection and expansion of German trade, a further outlet for German manufactures, the hope that German emigration might be diverted to lands which it might enrich without being lost to the Fatherland—these were the motives for the occupation of successive areas of land in Africa and Oceanica. The collision of claims led to a conference at Berlin in 1885, second only in international importance to the great Berlin Congress of 1878. At this conference the principles were settled in accordance with which African partition might be accomplished without danger of discord. The German share of Africa, determined by the acts of the conference and by succeeding treaties with other powers, comprises large areas on the east and in the southwest, and a smaller one on the Gulf of Guinea. These lands, together with a portion of New Guinea and some scattered islands in the South Seas, are the German colonial possessions.

For their defense, as well as for the protection of the increasing German trade, a navy has been built. The plan for a fleet was begun in 1873, and to its creation a portion of the French indemnity[1] was devoted. The navy has grown steadily, until now it is one of the most formidable in Europe—ranking next after that of France.

As a colonizing nation Germany has thus far not had a marked success. The German officials have not been very skilful in dealing with natives, the cost of the colonial establishments has exceeded their income, and there has been no considerable German migration to the colonies—while the stream that flows to America seems unabated. Perhaps in time, however, something may be done with the new possessions.

Turning from the question of foreign relations we ask what has been done in the last quarter-century to weld together the empire—to form a real German nation. Community of interests, community of political thinking, common sentiments of attachment for one another and for the Fatherland—these are of quite as much moment as kindred in blood and speech for forming a coherent nation. A wise domestic policy, then, would aim at effecting these forms of union. This may have been the aim of imperial policy. But the methods and results surely have been very checkered.

Almost at the moment when the empire was formed began the quarrel between the imperial government and the Roman Catholic Church. Having its inception in the adoption of the dogma of papal infallibility by the Vatican Council of 1870, it lasted through the remaining eight years of the pontificate of Pius IX. During that time the land was in a commotion. The bitterest passions were aroused. The most drastic laws were passed by the Prussian parliament, which crippled the ecclesiastical government and revenues, curbed the liberty of clerical education, and vacated many episcopal sees and hundreds of parishes. On the other hand the Catholics formed a national political party, whose primary motive was hostility to the policies of the imperial government, and which was often able to defeat that policy altogether.

The immediate responsibility for the beginning of the quarrel it may be difficult to place. But there can be no doubt that Bismarck took alarm at the dogma of infallibility, apprehending its application to the church in such way as to create an *imperium in imperio*.[2] The English or American way would be to ignore any doctrine so long as it remains mere words, but to deal promptly with an overt act which is criminal. But Bismarck, in his alarm at the possible, or perhaps we may say at the logical, inferences to be drawn from the dogma, proceeded as if there had been a physical attack on the sovereignty of the German state.

The German "Kulturkampf"—the war on the Catholic Church organization by the governments, especially of the empire and of Prussia—was unfortunate as creating dissension where the primary need was union, and was a failure so far as its purposes were concerned. It did not reduce the church

to submission. The anti-Catholic laws were in the end modified or repealed. Bismarck needed the Catholic vote in the Reichstag, and to get it he was compelled to yield. The policy of "blood and iron," so successful against Francis Joseph and Napoleon, was futile against the pope.

In the organization of the central government and in efforts to strengthen it against the tendency to particularism, Bismarck was in some ways the German Hamilton. He was far more potent than Hamilton in his influence on the structure of the federation. Hence he was favored in being enabled to create for himself, in the chancellorship, an office which was for many years secure against the ordinary storms of politics, while Hamilton was secretary for little more than the duration of a single presidential term.

Bismarck's conversion to the principle of a protective tariff seems to date from about 1878. It came after repeated but unavailing efforts to reconstruct the scheme of federal taxation so as to make the imperial treasury independent of the commonwealths. The German constitution, to be sure, provides distinct sources of revenue for the central government; but it also provides that in case this revenue is insufficient the lack shall be made up by commonwealth contributions. The original taxing measures of the imperial parliament did not secure the independence of the general government, and for a series of years there was an imperial deficit to be made up by the contributions of the several commonwealths. This was a dangerous policy, and Bismarck strove desperately to alter it, but without success. In 1878, however, he determined at one stroke to do away with the old system, and to raise a wall of protection around German manufactures. This policy proved popular, and in the following year the protective tariff laws were adopted. Thus Germany definitely abandoned the doctrine of free trade, and thus began a considerable economic revolution in German social life.

The failure and abandonment of the Kulturkampf and the adoption of the protective tariff were connected with a new subject of strife, which filled the remaining years of Bismarck's chancellorship—social democracy.

The ingenious German mind, always strongly individual and prone to speculation, has evolved many interesting social theories. These have been all the more luxuriant in the presence of a government so repressive of individual initiative as is that of most of the German commonwealths. Further, many Germans are inclined to act with the Social Democrats merely from dissatisfaction with the principles and methods of such governments. At all events the Social Democrats have been a growing party. They elected three members in the first German Reichstag. In 1893 they elected forty-four. In 1878 two attempts were made on the life of the emperor William by would-be social reformers. A storm of wrath swept over the empire, and naturally this was directed against the whole Social Democratic movement. Accordingly severe laws were passed, putting it in the power of the government to use extreme repressive measures. Such measures were adopted. Meetings were prevented, newspapers suppressed, societies dissolved, active leaders arrested and expelled from their homes. In short, the attempt was to stifle the whole movement.

These drastic anti-Socialist laws of Bismarck, limited in their operation to a few years only and renewed from time to time, expired in 1890, and the Reichstag then refused to continue them. They had no real success. Too indiscriminating, too illiberal, they were never in accord with the spirit of the age. "Blood and iron" a second time failed under Bismarck.

Meanwhile the government had undertaken a series of measures for the benefit of workingmen. The provision for insurance against sickness and old age, with contribution to the fund partly by the laborer and partly by the employer, with a large advance by the state, and state control of it all, was in the eyes of many a long step toward socialism. This was in 1889, and in the following year the anti-socialist laws expired and were not renewed.

Meanwhile a change came over the empire. In the spring of 1888 William I. died, and his son Frederick followed him to the grave after a reign of ninety-nine days. The son of Frederick succeeded as William II. Frederick began his reign by an address to the people. William's first address was to the army, saying "We belong to one another and are born for one another." His address to the people, shortly after, was quite in the style of a medieval monarch—he promised that he would be a "just and clement prince." To us plain republicans, who regard any monarch merely as the people's agent, this attitude seems somewhat grotesque. But William II. apparently is penetrated with the idea of monarchy by divine right — the notion which our English ancestors outgrew two hundred years ago, with the Stuart kings.

One of the early acts of the new emperor was to relegate Bismarck to private life. The old chancellor had in a large sense been the creator of the empire, and the world at large could hardly think that the imperial government would go on without the iron prince. But this was not William's idea at all, and in 1890 the minister somewhat suddenly found himself a private citizen. Since then the emperor has reigned in his stead.

Bismarck is one of the great figures of history. Without him the union under a common government of so large a portion of the German lands would hardly have been achieved. Whether he was the one to create a nation as well as a government is not so clear. He is at heart a thorough Tory, who believes in governing people whether they will or not. The Germans, intelligent, industrious, patriotic in spirit, would seem capable of governing themselves if any people are. They sadly need the training which can be had only from the practice of self-government. Bismarck, hating free parliaments, free speech, a free press, assumes that only a little knot of princes and chancellors have the heaven-endowed skill to provide government for the whole nation. The great, and intellectual, and fearless German people will some day weary of that notion.

Indeed the main fault with German government—especially with Prussian government—is that there is too much of it. The underlying assumption is that people are not capable of taking care of themselves, and that government therefore must take care of them. Hence there is incessant government interference in all sorts of trivial matters. It reminds one of the mother who told the nurse to go see what the baby was doing and then tell him not to do it. But Prussian police goes much farther than this. The arrest and imprisonment of so many people for *lèse-majesté* is typical. To speak disrespectfully of the head of the state may be bad taste. To make it criminal is a grotesque absurdity.

The history of the German Empire since 1871 has shown some extraordinary developments. The military power has been steadily increased, until the German army is one of the most tremendous engines of war which the world has ever seen. A powerful navy has been created. To be sure the cost of all this is very heavy. Every German workingman, it is said, carries a soldier or a sailor on his back. And the arrogance of these aristocratic army officers is something which at this distance seems droll. It may not be so to those who suffer from it at first hand. But at all events the three great military powers of Central Europe are banded together to preserve the peace—and thus far they have succeeded. Meanwhile the empire has had a remarkable growth in manufactures and commerce, until German competition is a serious factor even with England. German colonies are a new feature of the last dozen years—not as yet a very profitable feature, however. The fierce and unsuccessful contest of the government, first with the Roman Catholic Church and later with the Social Democrats, can hardly be said to have tended toward the consolidation of the nation in unity of sentiment. And it is pretty clear that the union of the German governments has as yet been accompanied

by very little liberal political reform. However, the orderly operation of the federal government, steadily accustoming people to the fact of a common political agency and to the idea of a common nationality, is a powerful and increasingly efficient force in the direction of a permanent national unity. This attained, such questions as those of personal liberty and government responsive to the public will may safely be left to German good sense. After a long struggle the Germans have attained unity. It should not require so long a struggle to attain popular self-government.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

LOVE AND LIFE.

And the greatest of these is love.—*Corinthians 1.13.*

[*November 7.*]

A CHRISTIAN is never so quickly and surely humbled as when he faces the fact that the essence of Christianity is simply and solely love as it is manifested in Jesus Christ. Many can pass muster for orthodoxy whose hearts are as hard and unresponsive as stones. Many bow low before the Christ in bread and wine who grind the face of the Christ in the persons of the weak and poor. There is no real worship except loving acts, and no genuine orthodoxy apart from a self-sacrificing spirit. There is one infallible way for determining growth in grace, and that is the application of the question, Are we beginning to love with Christlike love? An American evangelist in Scotland, after a sermon of exceptional power, was approached by the venerable Dr. Bonar, who said, "You do love to preach, do you not?" The evangelist replied, "Yes, I do." Dr. Bonar then asked this searching question: "Do you love men as much as you love to preach?"

The Corinthians had asked Paul about spiritual gifts. He had replied by asserting the reality of the spirit—that as in nature the one life manifests itself in a million forms, so in the realm of spirit there is the same multiplicity of manifestation, and each gift is as important as every other. Having said so much he continues: "But desire earnestly the greater gifts. And a still more excellent way show I unto you." That better thing is described in the thirteenth chapter. It is love. Elsewhere St. Paul says, "Love is the fulfilling of the law." St. Peter says, "Above all things have fervent love among yourselves." St. John lifts the whole subject to the loftiest heights in these words: "God is love. Whosoever loveth is born of God." Our Lord said that the whole law was embodied in "Thou shalt love the Lord thy God with all thy heart . . . and thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself." Then he added a final commandment, "That ye love one another, even as I have loved you."

The possession of love is the test of discipleship: "By this shall all men know that ye are my disciples, if ye have love one toward another." Not one, but all the New Testament writers place love above every other gift, and agree that without it there is no Christianity. This chapter, which is the world's classic on the subject, naturally divides itself into three parts. The first contrasts love with other gifts; the second is a kind of "verbal prism" through which the light of love is passed, and by which is revealed the elements of which it is composed; the third shows that love is the greatest and most enduring thing in the world; while all combined show the relation of love to life.

In the contrast between love and other gifts, notice the strong form of the language used. There is no chance of a possible misunderstanding. Love is greater than eloquence. A man may talk like an angel, but if he is without a loving spirit his life is no more musical than the noise which boys

make on old kettles and pans. "Sounding brass," an old brass kettle struck by a stone—that is as much like music as a man without love is like Christ. Eloquence is admired above almost all other gifts. He who can speak to men of God, providence, eternity; who can paint verbal pictures with Milton, analyze motives with Shakespeare, play upon emotions as an organist on his organ, is the popular idol; but if there is no love in his heart, the apostle says, his speech, though it be about sacred things, is no more acceptable to God than hammering on an old brass pan. That is vigorous talk.

Next, love is contrasted with prophecy, or the power of reading the future; with knowledge of mysteries, which plainly refers to theology, and with all knowledge, which includes science and faith. Here language seems utterly inadequate. With one sweep Paul says in effect: "I may be able to read the future; I may know everything about the Trinity, the divinity of Christ, punishment after death, and all the rest of these great subjects; I may know how the worlds were made; I may believe that God can save men to the uttermost; but if I go into a church and find people there that I malign and ignore; if I go out into the street and have toward the sorrowing and the vicious no consciousness that they are children of God; even though I pray, sing psalms, am always at church, and am as orthodox as ten thousand creeds can make me, I am nothing." Nothing! No stronger assertion is possible. In comparison with that love which goes about doing good, comforts the lonely, builds a bridge along which the vile and vicious may walk from the slums to heaven, theology, science, faith, are of no account whatever. Thus moves on the tide of the apostle's teaching.

[*November 14.*]

He goes farther, and puts the emphasis on the inner life. One might say, "I cannot do anything, therefore I do not love." That point is carefully guarded. Love is not manifested alone in outward action. A man may feed the poor in order to get a reputation for benevolence; in a frenzy of enthusiasm he may even be willing to be a martyr, and think only of self and a shining crown; but even martyrs without love are nothing in comparison with those who feel that humanity in itself is precious. He who is possessed by that conviction will do good according to opportunity; he who has it not will do good only so long as it will minister to his selfishness. Love is the supreme gift. Mere eloquence is as the sound of brass; theology and science in themselves are nothing; even outward acts of benevolence are of no account. Of this thought the Bible is full. "God so loved the world." "God commendeth his love toward us in that when we were yet sinners," etc. "The love of Christ constraineth us." "If we love one another, God abideth in us."

So the music rises and swells like a symphony, and sweeps on toward the consummation in which we catch glimpses of a city whose twelve foundations are precious stones—the first jasper, the second sapphire, the twelfth an amethyst; and the Lamb—love in sacrifice—the light which is flashed from their every facet. Love is the diamond among spiritual gifts. Where it is, there Christianity is. "Whosoever loveth is born of God." That explains many things. Our hearts say that certain men who differ from us are not bad men; we load them with denunciation while they live, and extravagantly eulogize them when they die. What does it mean? Simply that, in spite of all theories, the straitest of all sects know that those who truly love are loved of God. Many men are better and many are worse than their creeds. Where Christlike love is, theories are of comparatively little consequence. What a man is is always more than what he professes.

If the apostle had left the subject at this point evil might have resulted. Some would have confused love with tenderness or sensibility; they would have imagined that tears are its natural language. But Paul describes the way in which love is manifested, and so leaves no possibility of misunderstanding. Who ever saw love?

The blush on the maiden's cheek, the gleam in the young man's eye, the acts of kindly attention, the silent, ceaseless, deathless tenacity with which one friend clings to another—these outward things are visible; but love itself can no more be described than the force which blooms in a rose, makes an orchard a poem in color, sings in birds, romps in children, and glows and grows in the splendor of the springtime.

In this thirteenth chapter of First Corinthians is found the real offense of the cross. Whatever was true in Paul's time, it is not true now that men are repelled from Christianity because they are unwilling to believe its doctrines; there is nothing in the doctrine of the Trinity, or the most mechanical theory of the atonement, or in any of the terrific teaching about future punishment, which any honest thinker would refuse to accept if once he could be convinced that such teaching is true. The natural heart is not unwilling to receive the *doctrines* of Christianity. Men will accept anything that is true if it is to their advantage. But when a truth enters life and presumes to dictate what they shall eat and drink, how they shall behave among their fellows, what they shall talk about, rebellion arises. When a selfish person is told that he must be kind, be willing to give up his luxuries and comforts if by so doing he may help some tramp or beggar; that he must put a bridle on his tongue, and not even think unkindly, then he feels the offense of the cross; then he turns from the Master who taught and lived what pierces his pride to the quick. The offense of the cross in our time is unwillingness to live according to the love of the cross.

[*November 21.*]

CONSIDER these three sentences: "Love suffereth long and is kind." Abuse, misunderstanding, misrepresentation may be piled high; the man with love in his heart not only endures it, but is kind. The more Christ was persecuted, the more intensely he manifested his love. "And is kind"—that is a positive word. Some endure obloquy and hard treatment without complaint who will not be kind to those who heap burdens on them. A brute misrepresents me, lies about me; am I kind to him in proportion as he is unjust to me? That is the question that brings presumption to the ground.

"Thinketh no evil." Love not only does not injure another by outward act, but does not retain the thought of evil things in the memory. It is one thing to refrain from judging in word; it is vastly different not to judge in thought. This would be a new world if none would think evil of their fellow men.

"Rejoiceth not in iniquity, but rejoiceth in the truth"—that is, is not glad when evil befalls another; never draws a friend aside and says, "Did you hear so-and-so about Mr. B.?" with a manner that cannot conceal satisfaction.

"Rejoiceth in the truth"—never makes capital out of others' faults; never delights in exposing weakness; "endeavors to see things as they are, and rejoices to find them better than suspicion feared or calumny denounced."*

There is little difference in the average estimate of the glory of the loving character. It is only when men are told "This is what *you* must do," that they rebel. It is one thing to admire the grandeur of a mountain; another to be told to climb to its loftiest peak. Love is the very shining crest and loftiest summit of the Christian life.

Many people ask, "How may I love God?" and have no definite idea of what loving God is. Love for God is proved by obedience to God. If one knows that it is the supreme purpose and effort of his life to do God's will, that is the only evidence he needs that he loves God. Love is always measured by what one is willing to do for the object of affection. But even this is rather abstract. Jesus never made anything clearer than that love for God is to be determined by appreciation of man. "If a man love not his brother whom he hath seen, he cannot love God whom he hath not seen." We serve God, Jesus says, by clothing the

* Drummond's "Greatest Thing in the World," p 39.

naked and feeding the poor. He who is true to man can never be false to God.

The first thing for all to do is to get a correct idea of the value of man. If the fact that God is the Father has its proper place, all else will be clear. It follows, then, that every human being has something divine in him. That driveling wretch is my brother; I must help him. That fellow with a plausible story but a villainous face is God's child; he may lie to me, but the Father is seeking for him and I must help the wanderer to his home. That little dirty-faced, untamable boy has something in him that reaches back to the throne of God and forward into eternity, therefore nothing done for him can be wasted. If there is nothing in that brute of a man but wounds and putrifying sores, let him die, but if within that ruined body is an immortal spirit, then nothing that will help him to himself is too costly for us.

The first step in this pathway of love is the realization that all are the children of God. After that, about all that need be said is that men must learn to love by doing loving things, just as they grow strong physically by the exercise of their muscles. Sometimes a man undertakes work for others simply to drown sorrow; in a little while interest is aroused; then enthusiasm; until, from the service of those who needed love, love has grown.

But, after all, who can describe the genesis of love? Who can tell where the life in an elm tree comes from? Who knows what makes the flowers fragrant and the birds to sing? The flowers are fragrant and the birds sing because somewhere in the universe is a fountain of life, and men love because somewhere in the universe there is One who is a fountain of love. This has never been so beautifully stated as by the apostle John: "We love—because he first loved us."

[*November 28.*]

LOVE is the greatest thing in the world. It is the most lasting. Paul spoke about prophecies. There are no prophets now in the old sense, and yet in those days every mother longed to have her son a prophet. Then there was a gift called "tongues." In our time it is not known whether that gift was the ability to speak a foreign language without having learned it or a state of spiritual ecstasy. Knowledge also shall be done away. Nothing has been more evanescent than knowledge. Already the Encyclopædia Britannica has passed through nine editions, and every one has been an improvement on its predecessor. Language is in a state of constant change. Ptolemy was sure that the earth was stationary and that the sun moved around it. The science of yesterday is the foolishness of to-day. The text-books of our childhood have all been supplanted by others. Even Mr. Darwin, ten years after his death, is no longer the chief exponent of Darwinism.

As in science, so it is in theology. Whether it be a fact of good omen or not, the theology of to-day is not that of the last century. Religion can no more be expressed in the terms of the Westminster Confession than astronomy in Ptolemaic language. Everything earthly is in a state of flux—mountains are being taken to the plains; the ocean is encroaching on the continents; empires fall; prophecies are fulfilled; science takes on new forms; theology adjusts itself to its environment—but love never faileth. Faith, hope, and love abide, but love is the greatest; for God is love, and all who love enter into the life of God. He that loveth is born of God. Those only truly live who are in harmony with God. The life "of love and sacrifice is the ageless life."* The sun shines, the rains fall, the harvests come, the constellations sweep the spaces, and one law binds all events, all ages, all forces into harmony. Nothing is at enmity with love. A little child loving his mother is so far like God; a mother bound by affection to her child is so far like God; two lovers, if their devotion is pure, are in a way like God; a woman leaving a home of culture and wealth to help those who can give nothing in return is so far like God; the man giving his wealth to build a church where the Gospel may be preached,

* "The Mind of the Master," by John Watson, D.D.

to found a library, to open a fountain, to help to a sweeter and finer life those who have little to inspire, is so far like God. Mrs. Judson sailed for India almost alone to teach the Gospel to those who never heard of Jesus; love took her there—and God is love. Whittier saw in the black man in southern rice swamps his brother; love tuned his song—and God is love. A good woman knew that even London cabmen were children of the Heavenly Father, and she sought for them protection from storm and cold; love inspired her ministry—and God is love. Love can never grow old, because God cannot.

This is the theme on which the preacher can dwell and never exaggerate. This is the test to which at last all must come. I have sometimes thought that the judgment-seat of Christ is not a great white throne, but simple, pure, and perfect love, and that when men are to be judged no word will be spoken, no sound be heard, but still as the air, impalpable as the light, love will shine around them, and, if they love, their little lives will blend with the larger love, but if they are selfish their true characters in all their discord will simply be made manifest.

Let us press home this question until it is answered. Do we love with just a little of the love which was in Christ? Do we act toward those around us as if they were the children of God? Are we using our money chiefly for ourselves, or to make men happier and better? Are we using our strength in the service of those who need it, or wasting it in feasting and folly?

"Then shall the King say unto them on his right hand, Come, ye blessed of my Father, inherit the kingdom prepared for you from the foundation of the world; for I was anhungered, and ye gave me meat; I was thirsty, and ye gave me drink; I was a stranger, and ye took me in; naked, and ye clothed me; I was sick, and ye visited me; I was in prison, and ye came unto me." Blessed are the men whom these words truly describe.—*Amory H. Bradford.*

THE ECONOMIC POWER OF GERMANY.

BY XX.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "LA REVUE DE PARIS."

FROM Wales to the Rhine there extends, sometimes flush with the ground, sometimes under the sea, that long belt of coal which, too narrow when it traverses our territory [France], expands at the point where after leaving Belgium it penetrates Germany.

The gaze of the traveler who passes through the coal region meets cities such as Barmen, Elberfeld, Crefeld, Dortmund, Solingen—simple villages a quarter of a century ago, to-day cities of one hundred thousand to two hundred thousand souls; Barmen and Elberfeld occupied with the weaving of silk, cotton, and wool, as well as the dyeing of these articles, Crefeld the often happy rival of Lyons in silks, Solingen the continental Sheffield, Dortmund which possesses numerous breweries, powerful blast-furnaces, and vast shops for the construction of railway material. But it is at Hamburg especially that the economic activity of the country can be appreciated.

Hamburg is, from the commercial standpoint, the heart of Germany. You know that this city, a free town since 1224, formed with Lübeck and some other cities of less importance the powerful association which, under the name of the Hanseatic League,[1] played so important a rôle in the north of Europe during the Middle Ages. The present great prosperity of Hamburg dates from the time when the free town entered the zollverein[2] under the reservation of the construction of a free port. This was in 1824. More than $30,000,000 were expended in expropriations and in fitting up the harbor, which to-day extends over a space of 2,500 acres and has a total length of quays along the basins of the Elbe

amounting to nine miles. In 1894, 9,165 vessels, not counting river boats, entered the Elbe. The tonnage of Hamburg rose from 3,515,000 tons in 1885 to 5,942,000 tons in 1895, in the latter year surpassing the tonnage of Liverpool by more than a half-million tons.

How have these centers been established or so powerfully developed? The causes must be sought, first in the augmentation of the productive forces of the country, then in the increase of the population.

With regard to the first of these points, let us consider, for example, the mineral riches of Germany, little exploited before 1870. Lignite and coal, which in 1871 yielded respectively 27,500,000 and 8,000,000 tons, in 1894 furnished 71,000,000 and 21,000,000, and the value of mineral products has passed during the same period from $76,145,000 to $169,750,000, while the value of blast-furnace products has risen from $48,500,000 to $97,000,000.

The Germans naturally congratulate themselves upon the progress of an industry to which the last Germano-Russian treaty of commerce has opened new and very useful markets. Their rivals, Belgium and especially England, uneasy about the future, have sought for the causes of the successes of the Germans. Inquiries have been instituted and reports have been drawn up in which valuable teachings are found.

The delegates of the Wolverhampton chamber of commerce, on their return from a tour of inspection in the industrial centers of Westphalia and the borders of the Rhine, published their impressions in the *Iron Trade Review*:

> The English workman is, from the standpoint of hours of work and wages, in a better situation than his companions of the Continent. The English workman works fifty-three hours per week, the German sixty hours, the Belgian sixty-five hours. The wages per week, if the results announced in the accounts rendered are exact, are in inverse proportion to the duration of the work: the Belgian receives the lowest wages and the Englishman the highest; the German is between the two, but much nearer the Belgian than the Englishman.

Besides, according to this report, the cause of the victory of German industry is not in the respective condition of wages; what is of much more importance is the cheapness of transportation and the better perfected methods of production of German industry.

Another advantage which the German producer possesses over his rivals, according to the English delegates, is that he makes, in order to diminish the expense of production, certain articles of ready sale in great quantities, and sells abroad at slight profit, if not even at a loss, whatever exceeds the demand of the home market. He can do this because, protected upon the home market by customs duties, he covers his expenses of production and realizes the manufacturer's profit.

Finally, German industry owes its progress also to its method and its organization. The German manufacturer limits himself to the production of a small number of articles, while the Englishman makes a great many and consequently cannot produce them as cheaply as the German. German industry, still young, employs the newest machines and processes, while the conservative spirit of the English remains attached to the old methods which have made their reputation and conquered the market of the world.

To that is added, according to the same report, the more practical manner in which the Germans do business. Their packages are more pleasing to the eye, the calculation of prices includes packing and freight, it is made in the money of the country where the merchandise is delivered, and the correspondence is carried on in the language of the purchaser. The English, on the contrary, conscious of the sovereignty their industry exercises over the world, use only the English language and the English moneys and measures of capacity and weight, very inconvenient for strangers. Besides, the relative dearness of English freights renders yet more difficult the struggle against German competition.

The English delegates admitted also that German industry, a few articles excepted, "yields as good merchandise as England; that in certain branches it yields even bet-

ter, because the German workman, by reason of his superior instruction, has greater skill and taste than the English workman."

The association of iron manufacturers of Charleroi, Belgium, is disturbed like the English by the progress of German metallurgy. Its representatives, after examining the situation in Germany and other countries of Europe, decided that the increase in the production of iron in Germany was due in large measure to great syndicates formed with a view of monopolizing the national market and maintaining remunerative prices there. These syndicates escape criticism because they endeavor to maintain production within reasonable limits in order to avoid overstocking the market, lowering prices, and throwing out of employment numbers of workmen employed in the blast-furnaces and rolling-mills. At the same time they have succeeded marvelously in increasing the markets.

"Made in Germany" is the title of a volume appearing in England, the publication of which, coinciding with a discourse of Lord Rosebery's upon the power of German industry, created a sensation. In his introduction the author remarks that for fifteen years the part of England in the world's commerce has been diminishing, while for Germany the inverse phenomenon is exhibited. For a long time Great Britain, whose foreign commerce is yet to-day superior to that of any other country, has been able to consider German competition as a negligible quantity; it can no longer do so, and as the prosperity of its enormous industries is the basis of the political grandeur of England every assault upon its hitherto privileged position is a national danger. Not only the new countries, United States, Brazil, Argentine Republic, Transvaal, and Japan, voluntarily give the preference to German products, but old patrons like Russia follow the example. The English colonies themselves are often unfaithful to the mother country. England does not even know how to defend herself against the article made in Germany.

In 1876, at the Philadelphia Exposition, a cruel saying stung Germanic industry, still in its infancy. "Cheap but poor"; such was the verdict of the American juries. The defeat suffered upon economic grounds wounded to the quick the young empire, still so proud of its victories, and its chiefs resolved to efface the impression made upon the world by the Yankee formula.

Have they succeeded? While from 1871 to 1880 English exportation reached an average of $1,373,000,000, it reached in 1895, a year of business revival, only $1,113,000,000. German importation, on the contrary, is reckoned for the same epochs at $722,000,000 and $830,000,000.

In the struggle with Great Britain does Germany at least leave her the benefit of the maritime transportation of the products she makes in such great quantities? Here there is still a subject of grievous astonishment for the Britannic ship-owner, and the progress of Germany is more worthy of attention as the imperial government grants few postal subsidies.

At the time when ships were made of wood, Germany was in an excellent position for the industry of naval construction; her richness in oak assured her superiority over rival nations. The employment of iron gave the preponderance to Great Britain; her builders found the metal and the coal in the immediate vicinity of the ports, while the German shipyards must buy their rough materials far away in the interior of the country. But soon came improvements in metallurgy. Thanks to them, thanks also to the special rates, consented to by the railroads, for the transportation of materials intended for the construction of vessels, the industry of naval construction in Germany took an upward flight.

At the end of last year the activity of the German ship-building yards was such that they had work to carry out up to the summer of 1897 and could not make agreements except on long terms. Hence the societies of navigation, which had decided to increase their fleets without delay to respond to the constantly increasing necessities of traffic, were obliged to turn to England. Here one of them, the "Kosmos" of Hamburg, had built two steamers for South America; an-

other, the "Hamburg American" society, three packets for the service of the United States; a third, the house "Rickers," of Bremen, five ships destined to regular service between China and Germany; and other companies ordered single vessels, which English ship-builders promised to deliver on short notice. By reason of the scarcity of orders emanating from English houses, those which come from Germany are filled in six months.

Among the patrons of the ship-building yards of Bremen, Hamburg, and Stettin, one of the most important is the German Lloyd. The beginnings of this society of navigation deserve to be recalled. In 1858 the Lloyd made its first voyage to America; at present it has four independent services for New York. It is the Lloyd which on the average transports the most passengers in comparison with the other companies, having, in 1895, 68,887 against 53,170 of the American Red Star line, 45,191 of the Hamburg American line, 42,530 of the White Star line, 41,500 of the Cunard line (the last two lines are English), and 24,056 of the French Transatlantic line. In the same time out of a total of 4,273,039 pounds, total weight of the freight exchanged in 1894 between Europe and the United States, the Lloyd carried 1,479,730 pounds, while the Cunard, Hamburg American, White Star, Transatlantic, and the Liverpool and Great Western lines transported respectively 1,153,814 pounds, 384,617 pounds, 380,848 pounds, 290,795 pounds, and 36,409 pounds.

In addition to its United States service the Lloyd has numerous lines connecting with England, Brazil, and the La Plata, the extreme East, and Australia.

Since 1885 the state has allowed the Lloyd an annual subsidy of about $970,000, but the country is amply recompensed for it. The total amount of the subsidies paid by the state in ten years is about $9,700,000, and the Lloyd has during the same space of time paid into German hands about $6,062,500 for construction, modification, or improvement of packets, and about $6,305,000 for harbor dues, wine, and coal. This $12,367,500 has contributed to give employment to all sorts of industries, and to spread abroad German taste, the products of which, half-artistic, half-industrial, circulate around the world upon packets luxuriously fitted up. Furthermore the German packets at Anvers as well as at Bremen supply themselves only with German coal, to the great profit of the Rhenish industry. But the greatest benefit for the community is the development of commerce. From 1885 to 1895 the German traffic with China, Japan, and Australia has passed respectively from $4,365,000 to $11,397,500, from $1,212,500 to $6,305,000, and from $4,122,500 to $27,645,000.

The position taken by Germany in China certainly deserves to draw the attention of the English. Twenty-five years ago Germany's flag was barely represented in the waters of the Celestial Empire by a few ships of small tonnage. To-day it holds second rank, immediately after England. In 1882 Germany had only fifty-six houses of commerce in all China; to-day she has eighty-two. Germany has had since October, 1889, an important house of credit, the Deutsche Asiatische Bank, with a capital of about $7,000,000, which is located at Shanghai with a branch at Tientsin. This bank, or rather this trust, represents thirty of the principal German houses. It has been able in a few years to acquire an excellent position in China and has distributed to its stockholders annual dividends of seven to eight per cent.

Development of the iron industry and increase of the merchant marine—these two economic phenomena give very well the measure of the progress of German industry.

This progress is enormous whether one considers textiles (of which the production has passed in twenty-five years from 60,800 tons to 166,250), chemical products, or potteries and porcelains. From 1870 to 1895 the production of sugar rose from 176,700 tons to 1,330,000; that of beer from 422,720,000 gallons to 898,280,000. In 1875 there existed in Germany 35,000 steam-engines, representing a force of 865,500 horse-power; the first of these figures

rose in 1892 to 85,000 and the second to 2,850,000. Naturally this universal progress has its reaction upon the industry of railway transportation. From 1871 to 1895 the total length of railroads passed from 11,780 miles to 28,510, not including 1,860 miles of private branches; it exceeds that of England by 6,200 miles and that of France by 3,100 miles. The development of railroad lines has had as a corollary the perfecting of the postal service; in twenty years the number of offices has passed from 8,398 to 30,000, that of letters and packages carried, from 1,383,000 to 2,200,000. The number of telegraph offices is 20,000 instead of 6,388; the length of telegraph lines 78,888 miles in place of 30,380.

Upon the territory actually occupied by the German Empire (208,738 square miles in area) were living, in 1816, 24,831,396 inhabitants. These figures rose to 49,400,000 in 1890 and 52,000,000 in 1895. The increase of population reached, in 1820, 1.43 per cent, in 1870, 1.14 per cent, and in 1880, 1.07 per cent. Concerning the distribution of the inhabitants between country and city, it is noticeable that from 1870 to 1890 the urban population increased from 36 per cent to 47 per cent and that of the country, on the contrary, fell from 64 per cent to 53 per cent, towns of 2,000 inhabitants or more being counted cities. The rural population has remained absolutely stationary for twenty-five years, and the increase of the German population is carried toward the centers. This is an indication to be noted, and it must be remarked also that, according to the figures cited above, the per cent of increase of population tends to diminish, so much so that there is room for belief that Germany is entering little by little upon the road followed by France.

It is not less true that the excess of births over deaths reaches a half-million annually. Ought this, from the German standpoint, to be a cause for rejoicing or sorrow? If the productive powers of a country remain stationary the excess of births over deaths is an evil, for the country does not provide nourishment for its children. Such a condition produces a disturbance of equilibrium between the demand and the supply of objects of consumption which entails the misery of the greatest number. There is nothing of this sort in Germany, judging from the following table, which gives the average consumption per year and per inhabitant of the staples in general use:

	In 1873.	*In 1895.*
Beer	95.73 quarts.	113.59 quarts.
Sugar	15.86 pounds.	22.26 pounds.
Coal	2,442 "	4,198 "
Iron	117.9 "	117.9 "
Cotton	6.26 "	10.36 "
Herring	5.51 "	9.12 "
Rice	3.42 "	5.82 "
Petroleum	3.96 quarts.	15.86 quarts.
Wheat	113.72 pounds.	137.53 pounds.
Potatoes	749.14 "	877.63 "
Rye	266 68 "	246.85 "

The consumption by each individual has increased with regard to almost all the articles; if in truth the quantity of rye attributed to each unity has diminished, that of aliments more sought after, such as wheat and rice, has increased. As the individual consumes greater quantities than twenty years ago, it can be affirmed that the generality do not suffer by the increase in the number of individuals.

Populous and fertile Germany furnishes each year a strong contingent of emigration. Now in carrying to the antipodes the ideas, habits, and language of the mother country, in making its industrial products appreciated in all latitudes, emigration renders a thousand services. To the 3,000,000 Germans resident in the United States there corresponds a German importation amounting to $97,000,000, to the 200,000 Germans in South America an importation amounting to $48,500,000.

Of all these results Germany is almost as proud as of the victories of 1871, and it has a robust faith in the new successes which the future has in reserve for it. Will its hopes be realized? For a decade the foreign commerce of Germany, after having developed prodigiously, has a tendency to rest stationary. It has oscillated between $727,500,000 and $800,000,000, but it has resisted with more success than France or England the economic depression which ended about eighteen months ago.

(End of Required Reading for November.)

A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER XI.

AN OLD ACQUAINTANCE AND A SKIRMISH.

IT was the border-land which felt the brunt of war, especially during the first year, and one does not have to seek far for the causes. The turmoil and confusion were due chiefly, perhaps, to the efforts of both sides to gain the states; it was a mad race between Federals and Confederates to add territory to the roll of those saved to the Union or to score another victory for secession. For this purpose forces were poured into the disputed section; companies of disciplined United States troops came down from the North, and other regiments, rich in valor and enthusiasm, rode to meet them from the land of palmetto and magnolia.

Of course in even the northernmost of the slave states sympathy for secession was predominant; so much so that in the first flush of southern ardor the Unionists, no matter how great their number, seemed powerless to act. Many had no settled convictions on the subject and waited for events to shape their course. Most of them were poor and illiterate, they had no leaders, they did nothing. Naturally this state of things did not continue. Recruiting officers were sent out, the boldest worked and talked and planned day and night, United States posts were established, and shortly the whole country was garrisoned by militia. Then, when most of the regulars had been removed to other points which successively became the arena of dispute, the reign of terror began.

Moral, like physical, beauty is only skin-deep; beneath the skin is the savage. If history did not prove it—and all history does—man has but to look into his own consciousness to find the statement true. From civilization to savagery, from savagery to civilization, is but a step either way, and one can never be sure though he occupy one position this hour that he will not be in the other the next. Only let the occasion arise and men throw off the restraints of ages, while license revels in the wildest excesses. It goes without saying that there are degrees in savagery and civilization. Some men at best only get beyond the threshold of the latter; others could not descend to the depths of brutality. Notwithstanding, the premise holds true, and a very slight turn of Fortune's wrist is required to determine your condition. You may be the most highly respected gentleman of your community and your brother an outlaw; but if fate had shaped circumstances just a little differently you would have been the outlaw and he the gentleman. Moreover, before you die your name may have become a byword because the skin has been torn away and the savage has appeared, while your brother may have learned to subdue the savage, and the world will say it knew all the time he was the better of the two. This fact should make us both humble and hopeful—humble, since we too are mortal; hopeful, for if downfall is easy, so is reclamation.

The people of the southern border can attest that civil war furnishes the best means possible for uncovering the savage. Men who had been law-abiding and seemingly honest became highwaymen; those who had greater bias in an unlawful direction were little short of demons. Woe to the unfortunates that had incurred the ill will of any who were bound by no discipline and used the war only as an excuse to vent personal grievances. Guerrilla warfare afforded opportunity for settling many accounts, and few were slow to use them. Virginia and Georgia may have been so desolated that a crow could not find pasture, but the ruin was the fortune of war, committed by soldiers under authority. It was such havoc as that wrought in the neighbor-

hood of Jefferson, by men whose animosity grew daily by the opposition it fed on, that was hardest to endure. The time came when Federal troops of the regular army were hailed as saviors. After this midway territory ceased to be a battle-ground, it had only exchanged the tramp, tramp of armies for the iron boot and glove of the few, and the few were worse than the many. From '61 to '67 it knew not one day of calm or safety.

To none did the war come as a happier opportunity than to Silas Wire. How he managed to exist from his discharge by Colonel Seddon to his emergence into public life is a problem, for work at any price was almost out of the question. But he certainly had contrived to keep himself and his family alive, for after the departure of the two companies he walked the streets of Jefferson as boldly as though the plans he had been devising were already consummated. Not that he spoke openly—words were unnecessary. If a group of men were discussing the sole issue men then discussed, he had only to be present to be thought the oracle of the crowd, and yet perhaps he had thrown in but a sentence or two. It was in private conversation that he came out strong, and even here he used such wariness that none divined his real purpose or went away without thinking himself the leader instead of the led.

A master of craft was this overseer, and yet no one suspicioned it any more than the master had suspected him capable of extreme measures. He was the most zealous friend the slave and the government had—that was the opinion of all. Of course he was dealing with minds uncultured and unreasoning, for he was too insignificant as yet to be noticed by his betters, but his influence was remarkable unless one considers that he had a will and a purpose. Who has these and never falters is almost omnipotent. The man worked unceasingly; he started a ferment which spread the county over and beyond.

The fruit of all his words and schemes was the organization of the first company of militia in the state, and his election to its captaincy. Other men were more popular, for Mr. Wire, in spite of strenuous efforts, could never be attractive or agreeable; but by universal consent he was the most fitting man for the position. Zeal is often the best of recommendations. He was chosen with éclat sufficient to bring a smile to his sullen lips and to justify his accepting with a speech he had been mentally rehearsing a month in prospect of securing the coveted post.

No hearer would have dreamed it was the new captain's maiden attempt. He referred to the causes of the war, made patriotic phrases about the flag, denounced the president's policy as timorous, stigmatized the rebels in the foulest billingsgate, and closed with a peroration on the scandalous cruelty of the master to his slaves and an appeal to the humanity of his soldiers—of such pathos that one would have sworn he had tears in his eyes. There was a moving quality in his sentiment and manner that compelled ready response from the auditors; they were patriotic, fierce, vindictive, and tender according to his mood. His rude, blunt speech impressed them far more than the courtliest language could have done; he conclusively evinced his gift of oratory. The minds of the men were completely under his control. Even Richard Allyn, who had come with others loyal as himself to assist in organizing the company, and who opposed the appointment of Wire because he had some knowledge of his character, listened in bewilderment. Could this be the man Colonel Seddon had peremptorily dismissed for nearly killing the trustiest servant on the place?

"Well," remarked one gentleman as they walked away, "if we had a hundred thousand men like him we could crush this rebellion before Christmas."

"Isn't he an ugly devil, though?" added another. "The leer in his eyes and the way he clamped his jaws when he was berating the rebels was unearthly. I could have sworn he was Diabolus himself. However, he does seem in earnest. What do you think of him, Allyn?"

"That he will bear watching."

An unoccupied storeroom had been impressed for militia headquarters, and a small apartment in the rear furnished with a desk and chair. To this the captain retired as soon as he could rid himself of the officiously friendly attentions of his comrades. He felt that he could not restrain his furious exultation any longer; if it had not been for the safety-valve of the speech, regardless of discretion, in his crazed delight, he must have broken forth sooner. All through his tirade he saw no one but himself; his malice gave the color and his eagerness the warmth. It was his hatred for the government, because he thought the issue should have come before it did, his hungering revenge against every southerner who had regarded him as a worm of the dust, that had loosed his unwilling tongue and poured out the words. No wonder his speech had a certain eloquence. He was consumed with desperate vehemence, but if his heart had been laid bare his motive would have appeared so contrary to supposition as to stun the beholder.

But now at last he was withdrawn from curious gaze and locked in his private office to gloat over the prospect of realizing his two ambitions, a share in the world's preferment and that other—revenge. After assuring himself that no eye could peer in upon him he surrendered to a madman's frenzy. He swore tongue-paralyzing oaths; he sang snatches of ribald songs; he rocked to and fro, rubbing his hands in paroxysmal luxury; he caressed the scar on his cheek, which turned from red to purple and looked ready to open afresh; he even, with wild curses intermingled, blessed heaven for furnishing him the instrument of revenge.

When he was able again to command himself sufficiently to assume his mask of impenetrability he went home. But he could not hide from his wife's sharp eyes that he had been successful.

"Oh, Siley, did you get it?" she cried joyfully.

"Get what?" His tone was brutally harsh, but she was used to that.

"Get t' be cap'ain of the comp'ny?"

"Yes, I got it."

She dared not ask another question, but when he had punished her curiosity he said:

"I 'low somebody else 'll have silks an' satins an' broadcloth now, an' live in a fine house, an' have niggers to wait on 'em."

"And I'll be er fine lady too, like Mis' Seddon and that old varmint Mis' Chester!"

"Pa," chimed in Silas, junior, "will the little boys an' girls play with me now?"

"They will that, or I'll make their parents sweat for it!"

"Now, Siley, don't do anything rash. You allus was so hot-headed. Oh, Kansas! honey, they'll be plumb crazy to play with you now yore pa's er cap'ain."

The latter part of this speech mollified Mr. Wire's rising wrath at the first of it, so he cut the conversation short by calling for his supper.

That night Mrs. Wire dreamed she was mistress at Heart's Delight, and was compelling Mrs. Seddon, whose face was black as a crow, to crawl on bended knee to obey her commands. The new captain came in fantastically attired in gay-flowered coat and trousers decorated with lace and ribbon, while his shoulders were covered with huge epaulets made of solid gold. She urged him to fasten them securely that they might not be lost, and he answered in the kindly way he had talked in their courtship days. She was happy as a queen; but while she was congratulating herself on their splendid appearance and her husband's changed demeanor, a storm, which had gathered unperceived, suddenly burst with a fury that drove in the windows and was bringing the roof down upon them. She awoke to find the wind raging and their ramshackle dwelling in danger of being blown over.

Captain Wire's first care was to seize an old school building, situated on a high bluff overlooking the river, and to transfer the headquarters of his company thither. Riverward he constructed a fortification, several hundred yards in length, after rather a peculiar fashion. Barrels were placed on end, bottom up, at intervals of a few feet; upon them, from one to another, were laid

heavy timbers, under and around and over which was piled the underbrush of many an acre. The whole was then covered with sand and earth, forming an almost impregnable rampart seven feet high. This safeguard erected in the rear against possible gunboats was flanked by tiny powder-filled hillocks, which were so connected with the building that they could be fired at will. In front, as security against a land force, frequent pitfalls were dug and deftly hidden with twigs and grass or sod. Thus strongly ensconced, the commander was as snug as a spider in his web. To the enraged southerners he seemed to sally forth on his various quests like an enchanted knight from his Castle Dangerous or a ravenous beast from his lair.

For numerous duties, abhorrent to the good people of Jefferson and its neighborhood, devolved upon the new officer. Not only must the Union cause be cherished in manifold ways, but his own private interests must be looked after as well. First of all his purse must be well lined; at least one other company must be conscripted to withstand any attempted dislodgment from such a strategic point; southern sympathizers must be intimidated and all firearms secreted in disloyal homes confiscated.

This last concern was exceedingly important, for every gun pillaged from non-Union families meant a crippling of the Confederacy to that extent. Indeed if the loyal had not scoured the land in search of arms and confiscated every weapon found among the suspected, even then, in some sections of the South, troops levied after the first outburst could have been equipped with the greatest difficulty. Usually the early companies were fully armed, though in thoroughly nondescript fashion, and often with weapons of antiquated make; but when these were gone few arms were left, and no matter how carefully they were secreted the vigilant search of Federal troops made their discovery almost sure. Of course sometimes they escaped detection, being so well hidden that the owners themselves forgot where they were, and after the war, when the ordinary vocations of life were resumed, they were brought forth, eaten up with rust, from hollow trees or a grave in the field. Tales are yet told with gleeful gusto to the children and grandchildren around the firesides of successful attempts, attended with untold peril to life and property if the undertaking were discovered, to conceal confiscable goods. Sometimes not even the mistress knew the hiding-place, the whole affair being entrusted to a faithful servant, than whom the grave was not more silent. On the other hand, the danger was enhanced by the loyalty to the Union of slaves on every plantation. They were spies upon each member of the household, both white and black, and made immediate report of offensive conduct to a Federal officer—if possible to the commandant of the nearest post.

One of these stories tells that two old muskets, still effective for service, were strapped beneath the parlor sofa, which was considered perfectly secure from search. Shortly after, a small body of militia appeared on their investigation. Nothing forfeit was discovered, and as the quarters were comfortable the men remained to dinner, afterward crowding into the parlor and insisting that the young ladies of the house should furnish them music. A request under such circumstances is a command; refusal was impossible. But to the terror of those in the secret a dozen soldiers crowded upon the sofa; they sat on one another's laps, on the arms, the back, anywhere. It was a trying time, but the girls played and sang as though never an anxious thought crossed their minds. Finally that which they dreaded befell—a leg of the sofa broke under the weight. The officer in charge, with officious kindliness, was already lifting the side to see if the break were repairable. Heavens! all was lost! discovery seemed inevitable! Then one of the girls, with timely presence of mind, seized the officer's arm, and affecting a playful coquetry said:

"If you touch that I'll not sing another song. What shall my sweetheart and I do for a seat! Let it alone before you make it worse."

Her well-feigned petulance, set off by a pretty face, was irresistible. The man laughed, bade the others seat themselves on chairs, and the singing went on as before. But who questions that when the militia were gone the guns were taken clear away from the house to a safer retreat?

So it was scarcity of arms combined with vigilance of the Unionists that sent companies of marvelous equipment into service. Every species of firearms was represented; often there were none at all, and some belts bristled with knives, even butcher-knives being requisitioned for the purpose. Battle to these men was an armory from which they could supply themselves. It was a feat worthy of boast to face the government's splendidly furnished battalions and snatch from them a victory; and if a regiment of unarmed men should chase a regiment of the enemy clear off the field, as did occur, these troops were immortalized.

To the earnest delver into the unwritten past these stories and traditions make the time wonderfully vivid and alive; be this the apology for digression.

It can readily be conceived that Captain Wire, in zeal, vigilance, and violence, in all the ways before enumerated, out-Heroded any other in his efforts to preserve the Union. His boldness knew no limit; his partisanship none. Indeed he went to such extremes in his drastic measures that a messenger was sent in hot haste to the nearest Confederate camp to request troops to dislodge him. Captain Adolphus Chester and his company were detailed for this duty.

Captain Chester accepted the trust unhesitatingly, though he had not seen one day of active service. There had been a sharp engagement with the Federals, but some unavoidable hindrance had prevented the pride of The Oaks from exhibiting his boasted valor and hatred of everything that lived north of Mason and Dixon's line. So now he obeyed the command to march back to Jefferson with alacrity, his only misgiving being with regard to his opponent. He felt that it hardly comported with his dignity to offer to fight such a creature as Silas Wire. Had the latter been a worm Adolphus could not have despised him or his generalship more. The only atoning feature was that he would have only to demand surrender and the militia would obsequiously lay their arms at the feet of the conquering hero, thus starting him on his campaign with splendid prestige, though he had not struck a blow. Poor Adolphus! some people are born to disappointment.

Instead of the expected response to his pompous demand for immediate evacuation of their headquarters, surrender of their arms, and return to peaceable pursuits, Captain Wire returned such an insolent reply that most of the Confederates were for attacking him at once. But Adolphus was too staggered to be capable of action; he felt that he must have time to consider. Surely this "upstart commander of a rabble crew" must be well fortified, or he would not dare brave him in that manner. Or possibly he but covered his cowardice with contumely, and hoped by his insults to terrify them into running away. In either case it behooved the captain of the company sent to drive him away not to act too rashly.

Accordingly Adolphus withdrew a short distance and posted his pickets. But scarcely had he called the leading men of the company to his tent to advise as to the best course to be pursued, when the alarming intelligence was brought him that a force numbering more than fifty men was now marching to the relief of the militia. Then the poor captain was nonplused sure enough; in his easy-going life there had been no discipline to prepare him for an emergency like this. But his lieutenant, a gallant young fellow named Moulton, rose to the occasion.

"Here, Jack!" he called to the guard who had communicated the news. "Come back. Where did you get this information?"

"From one of Wire's men who was allowed to leave headquarters to visit his wife and fell into our hands."

The lieutenant to Adolphus:

"Let us call this man in. We shall be better satisfied after talking with him ourselves. Jack, you may bring him to us at once. I believe the whole story is a lie to run us away."

In a moment the soldier returned with his prisoner, who looked frightened to death.

At sight of his alarm Captain Chester's courage returned and he began the questioning with his accustomed boldness.

"What is your name?"

"Sam Smith, cap'n."

"Why are you away from camp?"

"The cap'n gimme leave t' go t' see Lizy—she's my wife—an' I run into your pickets. I thought I wus furder erway then yore pickets wus posted."

"What is this tale you are telling about reinforcements?"

"Lord! cap'n don't let our cap'n know 'bout me ertellin' that. I had'n' orter did it, but Lizy she's awful sick, an' I was tryin' t' p'suade yore man t' lemme go, an' told 'im he might ez well, fur ther wus er force of our people comin' who would make 'im pay fer it."

"How do you know this force is coming?"

"For God's sake, cap'n don't blow on me—I'm er goner ef you do. I overheerd the cap'n ertellin' of ernother orficer. He calc'lated ez how them damned rebs would wish they wus back wher' they come frum, an' that reskilly cap'n in pertic'ler."

Adolphus' indignation at this impertinence rendered him speechless for a moment, and Lieutenant Moulton took up the interrogation.

"From what direction are these troops coming?"

"By ther east road. Cap'n wus tellin' of ther whole thing—how they would pass ther covered bridge, an' all."

"When do you look for them?"

"You've got me now. Cap'n he jest says they was on the road. I reck'n they'll be erlong sometime t'day or t'night. Please, mister, don't ask me no more questions—I've told you all I know. An' ef you let on ez how I peached I'll be er dead man 'fore t'morrer night. When cap'n's riled he's ther charginest man ever I see. He'd string er feller up 'fore he could wink his eye."

The prisoner was dismissed under guard, and after a hurried consultation it was agreed to march toward this new foe which threatened, and prevent the junction with Wire's men. Even Lieutenant Moulton decided that it was perhaps the wise plan, though he could not banish the idea that the enemy was scheming to work their ruin.

By midnight of the same day the troops had reached the covered bridge, where it was determined to await the enemy. The bridge spanned a wide creek, which emptied into the river nearly a mile from this spot, and was bordered on each side by huge trees. Scouts were sent out, outlying pickets were posted, and what few men were left—for Captain Chester had posted almost all his company as sentinels—were given a few hours' sleep on their arms.

The night passed without incident. All were up betimes the next morning, though the scouts reported not a bluecoat could be heard of nearer than Jefferson, ten miles away. With every fresh report of no enemy Adolphus' courage rose, though he contended most warmly that he knew Sam Smith's tale was trustworthy and the Federals would make their appearance before noon. The more remote the danger the more eager he was to encounter it, like many other people all of us have known. Likewise his self-importance swelled in equal proportion. If the prospective battle in miniature had been the pivotal engagement of the war he could not have been busier or more sublimely dignified. He galloped from man to man, trusting no one but himself to give the orders, which if carried out would compel every soldier to be in a dozen places at once; he made a little speech, designed to be inspiring, after the manner of his favorite military hero; he even drew a rough map of the position, represented his own troops and the enemy by grains of corn, and swept the foe as completely out of existence as one could do in a game of checkers if he were playing both sides at once. The paper victory encouraged him still more, and he swore by all the gods that if the Yankees did not come soon he would march back to Jefferson, storm Wire's entrenchments, give him a sound thrashing,

and then turn upon the enemy in his rear. He was so excited over this series of brilliant exploits that he almost forgot to eat his dinner.

For noon had come and still no enemy. But an hour later, when the men were beginning to grumble about the tiresome delay, a flying shell cut off the top of one of the tallest trees in the wood where they were encamped. Consternation reigned. Where were the bluecoats?—in what number? What trap was this they had fallen into? There was scurrying into as orderly ranks as the trees permitted. Another shell, which exploded, killing one man and wounding a second. Another and another—topping more trees and throwing the Confederates into still wilder confusion.

Only a few hundred yards from Adolphus' camping-ground was the opening of a clearing which extended to the river. This land, covered with the richest alluvial deposit from many an inundation when the spring rise hurled the water of the creek back upon itself and added more besides, was divided into corn-fields, and fell with an almost imperceptible decline to the river's edge. If Adolphus had emerged from cover of the trees and used his glass, he might have seen a gunboat moored close to shore and with relentless devilry shelling the wood where he and his comrades found perilous shelter. But the timorous captain had no thought of exposing himself to the fire which proved so destructive and appalling even where he was. His lines dissolved into as many fragments as there were individuals composing them; to stand ranked was madness, and he sought his tree as eagerly as the others. The balls came faster still. Branches of trees were crashing down as though a cyclone were in progress. The woods, instead of proving a protection, increased the danger.

"We are all dead men!" Adolphus exclaimed, his teeth chattering.

A moment later a happy thought struck him and he made a bold dash for the bridge, reaching it in safety. But he hardly had time to congratulate himself on his escape when a telling shot tore away a huge section of the upright planking not a foot from where he was standing. Without stopping to think—too paralyzed with fear to think—he left his cover as eagerly as he had entered it. He was frightened to death—there is no denying it.

Finally the retreat, which ought to have been ordered before, began in precipitate confusion. To run was not cowardly; to remain was foolhardy. Then our luckless hero paid the penalty for all his years of gormandizing. He had run but a few yards when he was completely blown. His breath came in jerks—all the blood of his body seemed collected in his head. Already he was the hindmost man of the stampede, and certain that the next moment would be his last. He wished the men would not run so fast; they were all cowards; it was outrageous to leave him to face the enemy alone just because he was their commander. When they were nearly out of calling distance he raised his voice in abject, pitiful appeal:

"Oh, boys! don't desert your captain!"

The soldiers were not frightened sufficiently to fail in appreciating the ridiculousness of such a situation—the men running with all speed and the captain prevented from leading them by too much flesh. Enough halted to furnish the show of a body-guard, and the retreat continued.

The next day Captain Chester resigned his command, Lieutenant Moulton was promoted to the vacancy, and the troops were led back to the Confederate camp. The severe shock to Adolphus' nervous system prevented his return even as a private.

It was the first rencounter between Captain Wire and his hated antagonist, and his cunning had won.

CHAPTER XII.

NED'S FIRST BATTLE.

Oh! the delight of being young and brave, valiant and dauntless, the heart bursting with ecstasy! Of being animated with a principle one believes in wholly, and of battling for that principle to the death! In contrast with such a lot that of *ennuyé* mortals, burdened with time and dol-

lars, who exist without living, is vapid and spiritless as warm water in comparison with the ice-cold mountain rill.

Certainly Ned would have exchanged places with no man living, if only—ye gods! must wormwood flavor every man's cup?—his father had not shown such evident dislike to his participating in a real battle. When the only considerable engagement the company had been in was fought he had been detailed for duty which took him miles away from shot and shell. Even the one or two insignificant skirmishes he had witnessed were over before he got in. True the men fought the battle all over again round the camp-fire for his especial benefit, but their description made him the more eager to be chief actor in a similar scene. Why, he even envied Pete, who had viewed the combat from afar, and recounted the events of the day with a rolling of the eyes and a sprightliness of detail that set Ned's blood aflame. Late at night as it was, he insisted that they walk over the battle-field, while Pete should again describe each circumstance of the day.

"You say it was right at this tree, Pete, our men made a stand and the Federals began to give way?"

"Yes, sah, dis am de bery spot. Me'n ernoder niggeh, we clumb er tree on de hill yandeh an' wus watchin' hard ez sixty. Onct it did look lack de Yanks had us. Torm he say we wus gone 'fo' Gord! I say, 'No, sah, meh mahsteh's in dat ring, an' he won' gib de flo' t' nobody. Meh mahsteh c'u'd whip er whole hunderd Yanks all by hese'f ef he wanter. He don' wanter ca'se he got t' leab some wuk fuh ur folks t' do.' But it did look scarry fuh us, dough—I ain' gwine 'spute dat. Ef mahsteh hadn' ben dar I'd er gin up, sho. 'Peared lack our men wus fixin' t' run w'en mahsteh he rid up so gran' lack, er-wavin' he s'o'd, an' settin' on dat hoss lack he was growed t' it. De men ain' feahed no longer den, wid mahsteh at dey head; dey raise one big shout an' run at de Fed'als, him erleadin', lack day was gwine tromp 'em in de arth. Dey know better den t' stay in de way too; dey skedaddled, I tells yeh. Huh! lack dem ornery—Oh, Lahd er massy! What was dat? Mahs Ned! oh, Mahs Ned! in de name o' Gord, don't go nigh dat tree! Don' yeh heah de sperits er-moanin'?"

Ned, without heed to the remonstrance, thrust aside the low-hanging boughs of a red-haw tree, the trunk of which was nearly concealed by the bank of a shallow ravine out of which it grew. There, screened by the branches, lay a soldier in Union regimentals. The poor fellow was frightfully wounded, his skull being so fractured that the brain was protruding. He had crawled out of sight in the heat of the battle and thus had been overlooked in the removal of the dead and wounded.

Ned was as tender as impulsive. It mattered not to him that the soldier wore the enemy's uniform.

"Quick, Pete!" he cried. "Lend a hand and we'll carry him to camp."

Ned had found employment for the several weeks intervening before the next battle. He could not have shown more anxious care for his father, or more loving patience, than to this sick man's vagaries. Day and night he was at his side, sharing the office of nurse only with Pete, who, he thought, from being present at the capture divided the responsibility of restoring him to health. Strange to say the man lived. His joy at recovery, however, did not equal Ned's, who proved clearly that his animosity for Uncle Sam's troops extended only to the abstract, not to individuals. Even after a month, when his charge was pronounced convalescent, he did not remit his attentions. Nor did the man seem ungrateful; though placed under a slight surveillance, which he could easily have eluded, he showed no disposition to leave his new friends.

Meanwhile a Union force had come into the state under the gallant young General Everest. After the delay occasioned by forming a junction with the Federal troops in the state and mapping out the plan of campaign, he moved to attack General McClintock, under whom Captain Seddon was serving. Finding, however, the Confederate forces too formidable for him to

hazard a battle, he slowly retreated, augmenting his number by daily additions from Union sympathizers of the territory through which he passed. McClintock, though closely pursuing, for legitimate reasons was also unwilling to risk an engagement. This cautious policy prevailed a week, till finally the Federals fortified themselves at Moundville, the most important town in the southwestern part of the state, and the Confederates encamped fifteen miles away.

General McClintock was now determined to bring matters to a crisis; almost to a man his soldiers were clamoring for battle. It was decided in council to march to Moundville the following day and force Everest to fight. The retreat and pursuit had been so leisurely that no one suspected the enemy would do aught save wait to be attacked. The Confederates called in all their outlying pickets, and, though they took precaution to sleep on their arms, slept as securely as if an ocean rolled between them and a hostile bayonet. Such careless confidence is inexcusable madness, and none but tyros would be guilty of it.

That night Ned's prisoner with little effort escaped from his guards and made a speedy way to Union headquarters.

At daybreak the sentries posted close about the camp gave an alarm, and as the sleepy Confederates opened their eyes they beheld a slight incline, overlooking the creek along which their tents were pitched, bristling with Federal arms. What a sight! Tier on tier those arms were ranked, and still as one gazed the sea spread. Would they never cease coming? And the singular thing is, this sudden irruption, while it produced the most intense excitement, brought no consternation to the attacked. Johnny Reb had not yet learned the a-b-c's of warfare. Before they could get into fighting trim cannon-balls came whizzing through the tents, and yet those ridiculous Confederates kept calling to one another, "Mac has to fight now," or, "Isn't this the best luck we've had in a year?" They were beaten before the battle began, and through their ignorance they turned defeat into victory.

Little time elapsed before the Confederates were returning the attack and the battle had begun. The shallow creek just mentioned, which was everywhere fordable, the water being hardly ankle-deep, intersected the battle-field; on one side rose a gentle acclivity where the Federals had already their position, on the other stretched a pasture, heavily timbered with that least respectable of the oak family commonly known as black-jack, and back of this undulating fields. The Confederate encampment spread over at least a mile of ground, but the battle raged along the creek, in the pasture, and on the hill.

From the first General McClintock acted on the offensive, his purpose being to drive Everest back over the hill and clear out of the state, never to return, if possible. The front rank of one company signalized itself almost at the beginning of the battle by a deed of reckless daring. Two pieces of artillery, planted on the very brow of the slope, were doing too deadly damage to be endured. A small squad of young Confederates, fleet-footed as hares, started out from their line at a headlong run and, facing the enemy's fire with a fearless pluck, had reached the guns before the gunners were well aware of their intention. Without one instant's hesitation, still on the run, they seized the offending cannon and started them down the hill. A start only was needed, for the farther the faster they flew down the grassy declivity, till they plunged into the water. Following with almost equal speed came the adventurous band, all of whom in this day of marvelous happenings escaped unhurt save two, and they, only slightly wounded, were carried by their comrades out of danger. When the feat was accomplished a shout from the Confederates rent the sky, and the admiration of the Federals, though not so loudly expressed, was hardly less fervent. Many a trigger ready to fire was not drawn till the danger line was passed; such is the reward valor pays to heroism always.

One cannot help wishing that Ned had shared in this deed so accordant with his ambition, but Captain Seddon's company

was quartered a mile from the creek and was among the last to be ordered into the engagement. Ned was well-nigh crazy with excitement. He counted it the greatest good fortune that no time was given for getting him out of the way, as he was sure his father would have accomplished had there been any possible chance. As the sun came up, gilding the hilltop and multiplying its beams by ten thousand reflections from as many Union rifles, throwing into still more somber relief the shadows of the lower land, he burned with impatience to be in the thick of the fight. The morning was too fair for carnage, but he cared not for that. A rain the night before had polished the sky and cleansed the air, and the sun had that peculiar veiled appearance of the soft-toned Indian summer that makes it look modest as a bride. It was a day to live, not to die. But who heeds nature at such an hour?

At least not Ned, who confided all his hopes and aspirations to the only one who had leisure to hear them, and the most sympathetic confidant he could have found—Pete.

"I'll win my epaulets to-day, Pete. When the day is over you will see I am plain private no longer. Jove! but that musketry is getting loud. Will they never give us a chance? I will make mother proud of me if I ever get in!"

"Cose'n you will, Mahs Ned," was the hearty response. "I 'low mahsteh'll be de fus' aufficer an' you de nex'. Pappy allus say dah ain' no gemmuns lack de gemmuns ub our fambly."

Ned was not listening.

"Look!" he cried, "there go the Louisiana troops. Aren't they splendid fellows? And their arms!—the best made. I wouldn't give a fig for Everest's chances against such soldiers as those."

A pause followed, broken by Ned's suddenly exclaiming:

"Don't you venture near a single bullet, Pete. You know what I promised Uncle Isaac. For goodness' sake don't let your curiosity lead you into any danger."

"Lahd! Mahs Ned, I ain' 'gwine gib dem murdurin' bluecoats"—Pete was showing off the army terms learned since his sojourn in camp—"any chance 't shoot me. Pete 'ud be er deader sho 'ef dey p'inted er gun at 'im."

Meanwhile a storm of leaden hail was desolating the pasture where just the day before meek-eyed cows had cropped the grass in absolute content. As successive divisions of the Federal force were called into the action and the lines of the engagement lengthened, General McClintock had also to order up his reserve. Finally Ned's time came.

Who can picture the agitation of the youthful warrior entering his first battle? The drum beats not louder than his own heart, his breath comes in short gasps, each threatening to be the last, tremors of excitement alternately freeze and scorch him, he walks he knows not how, and carries his musket with cramped, nerveless hand. Yet he perceives all this with only half his consciousness, for the other half is pondering the identity of this huge, shadowy, unreal substance, himself, which promises each moment to become more unreal when pierced by a thousand bullets, for all the enemy's guns seem pointed his way. Fortunate is such an one if, like Ned, his bewilderment soon passes away, to be succeeded by a glow that transforms his panic into passion, his halting into heroism. With the greatest effort Pete's young master kept step with his comrades. All the supposed injustice that had caused the war was concentrated into a frenzy that was impelling him to break away like some Titanic avenger and, unaided, redress the wrongs of his countrymen.

How dwarfed must be the soul which does not rise more than once in life to the sublimest heights of self-sacrifice, yearning inexpressibly to shoulder all the sorrows or misfortunes of others, though his own life were crushed out in the act. Sometimes this yearning vibrates to a strain of music, sometimes to the recital of heroic deeds, sometimes to the sight of a haggard, troubled face—in a hundred ways it may be awakened, for most men have not en-

tirely lost the likeness to divinity with which the race was created.

The battle had been progressing with varying fortunes, but was decidedly in favor of the Federals at the moment the fresh troops arrived. They had almost reached the foot of the hill, and with the Confederates once on the retreat victory was sure. But the latter, enheartened by the timely succor, advanced with renewed courage, and the enemy were compelled to fall back. Half an hour later they had regained almost what they had lost. But again, when the Confederates were on the very edge of defeat, they had stormed ahead with a desperate valor that shivered the Union lines, which almost immediately coalesced again to renew the hammering process.

It was a desperate struggle—this battle of Clear Creek. Its record has come down in history as one of the fiercest contests of the war. Beginning before sunrise it lasted till past noon, and yet only needed for its stage a strip of pasture, long but narrow, and an insignificant hill. This gives an idea of the furious bravery characterizing each side. For three hours the Confederates gained ground literally inch by inch, and then their advantage was inconsiderable. Bullets were singing through the air as thick as moths on a summer evening; it looked as though one might hold up his hat and catch it full.

It was that moment McClintock resolved upon a desperate plan. His brilliant prowess, which consorted ill with his cool, even manner and discreet caution—when caution was best—could brook such prudent tactics no longer. If it continued as it was now going, ere long the battle would be a duel. He determined upon an assault all along the lines; it might bring destruction, but the possible success was worth the hazard. Using a favorable time, the regiments were withdrawn a short distance to make ready for the charge. The general walked his horse slowly along the front in sight of both armies, one of which answered the seeming challenge with a round of shot, while the other spent its breath uselessly in beseeching him to retire to a safe distance. He gave as little heed to one as to the other. He was saying over and over again: "Give them hell, boys! give them hell."

One enthusiastic little fellow, hardly untied from his mother's apron-strings, cried with tender solicitude: "Oh, pap, do go back! You are worth a thousand like us!"

The general smiled in the fatherly way which had won him the sobriquet, and without replying kept on repeating the only order he thought necessary: "Give them hell, boys! give them hell!"

Such daring could not fail of the desired effect. The weakest arm was nerved and the timidest heart strengthened. And indeed every encouragement was needed. An attack made up a slope upon battalions waiting to receive them might end in utter rout, as every veteran knows. Consider, too, how much the peril to the assaulting was intensified by their use, for the greater part, of the old single-barrel, muzzle-loading rifle, while the assaulted were armed with deadly repeaters. The commander clearly recognized the adverse odds, but he also knew that if his men kept cool heads the tide of battle would likely turn in their favor.

General Everest was not slow in discerning his opponent's intentions. His soldiers reloaded and dropped with one knee to the ground to await the coming onset.

Tramp—tramp—tramp—came the Confederates, grim and resolute. Just as grim and resolute sat the sea of sphinxes on the hill. Tramp—tramp—tramp—a deathknell in every footfall; so relentless is war. Tramp—tramp—tramp—seconds were hours! This waiting was worse than fighting.

Everest thought he detected a slight impatience among his troops—the delay was hardly endurable. He dashed to the front, a heroic figure, waving his sword above his head with all the gallantry of a recreated Prince Rupert or Chevalier Bayard. "Fire!" he cried.

A roar of musketry that reached the stars —shrieks and oaths of wounded—pitiful groans of dying—a scarce perceptible faltering in the oncomers—an answering unflinching resolution in the sphinxes, now thoroughly alive—a mad, mad rush—a

hand-to-hand conflict — bayonets bloody and merciless—violence on the one hand and stubbornness on the other, under cover of the powder-stained air. When the smoke lifted, the hillside was overspread with slain and wounded, the Federals were obstinately and slowly retreating, the Confederates had pressed forward and won the coveted vantage-ground.

The gallant Everest—a flower of knighthood cut down ere he reached his prime—lay dying!

But a loss far greater than a regiment of Everests to the mother at Heart's Delight had befallen: Ned fell at the first fire of the Union lines. George Dupey, who was marching next him, knelt beside him and noted with keenest emotion that there was no evidence of life. But he had no time to grieve or even to remove the body, for the next instant he was himself struck to the ground, wounded in the leg.

"Take me to the rear," he cried to a comrade, and was quickly picked up and borne off the field.

Meanwhile Pete had wandered about as if forsaken, through the long hours of that bloody fray. He had followed Ned's retreating figure, marching away so eager and happy, with outspoken soliloquy.

"Lahd! Lahd! ain' I glad I's not'in' but a po' niggeh t'day! Many's de time I's wushed Pete wus Mahs Ned an' Mahs Ned wus Pete, but 'fo' Gord I don' wush dat wid de bullets whis'lin' roun' lack hail! I's mos' owdacious glad Pete kin steer cl'ah ub 'em."

And yet he had no thought that his master and Ned were in real danger. To him they were such sacred personages that they bore charmed lives, and he experienced only a pleasurable anxiety for their safety. Others might fall—were falling—but when the day was over the young master and the old would be whole as when it began. Tired, finally, of climbing trees and roaming from hill to hill in endeavor to witness the battle, with all a negro's love of excitement and terrible happenings he stationed himself not far from the marquee which served as a hospital, and was an interested observer of the wounded who were brought hither.

Therefore when George was still some distance away Pete saw and ran to meet him. Could it be that "Mahs Dupey's" eldest son had been a victim? Possibly then his own young master might be in danger: some such harassing thought was vexing him as he ran. He wasted not a word on George's disaster—that did not arouse his sympathy, and negroes are as undissembling as children—but cried eagerly:

"Mahs Gawg! has yo' seen meh young mahsteh?"

In his distressing pain Dupey did not take thought to save the poor fellow. Even if he had credited a slave with feelings he would hardly have done so.

"He is dead," he answered bluntly.

"Daid! meh young mahsteh daid!"

The outburst did not come immediately. He stood as if petrified, too stunned to grasp such intelligence. His young master, that morning so gay and hopeful, so afraid that the battle would be over before he got in, thinking to come back all bedecked with the rewards of valor—dead! A quicker intellect than Pete's would have been overpowered by such news.

While he stood trying to comprehend what had been told him George was being borne on. But before he reached the marquee Pete ran after him, crying:

"Wait! fuh Gord's sake, wait!"

When he came up he was hardly able to speak for sobs.

"Tell me—whar he be—Mahs Gawg."

George was in no mood to be trifled with, and cried out angrily:

"Damnation take the nigger! I don't know where he is."

Pete turned back, his heart bursting with grief. But soon a resolute and ennobling purpose so animated him that he dried his tears and started upon its execution; he would find his young master. He had faithfully promised his father not to venture near a battle-field, but to his mistress he had just as faithfully sworn fidelity to her husband and son. No question of which obligation was the more binding crossed

his mind. A promise to his mistress was more sacred than a promise to God. Where her son was lying he did not know. He might be where the bullets were the thickest; but wherever he was Pete determined to find him, though he lost his own life in the attempt. To leave the boy on the field to be buried in a trench with a hundred others, as he had seen done a few weeks before, was too revolting to be considered for a moment. It did not occur to him that Captain Seddon's son would be treated with greater consideration; at that moment all the responsibility devolved upon him.

(To be continued.)

WHAT WE HAVE LEARNED ABOUT LIGHTNING SINCE THE TIME OF FRANKLIN.

BY PROF. JOHN TROWBRIDGE, S.D.

OF HARVARD UNIVERSITY.

WHEN Benjamin Franklin proved by his celebrated kite experiment the identity between the discharges of lightning and the spark from an electrical machine, it was but a step to conceive of the lightning-rod. His kite, indeed, with its points and its net string, was such a rod. I never gaze at the complacent portraits of Franklin without feeling convinced that he inwardly smiled at the doubts ignorant people expressed in regard to the efficacy of his method of protection of buildings. It is probable that the author of "Poor Richard's Almanac" had full confidence in his philosophical deductions. Professor Winthrop of Harvard University once wrote to him expressing astonishment that people were still to be found who would not place lightning-rods on their buildings; but the number of skeptics has increased rather than diminished since the time of Franklin, and their skepticism is largely due to our increase of knowledge of the character of electrical discharges.

Franklin believed that lightning always took the shortest electrical path, or in other words the best conductor. He thought that it was best to have a lightning-rod of large cross-section, and he did not know that a discharge of lightning oscillates; in other words that it does not consist of a discharge which passes in one direction alone, but that each discharge is made up of a number, which pulsate to and fro, the time of each pulsation being very small—perhaps a millionth of a second. The oscillatory nature of the commonest form of electrical discharges was first shown by Professor Henry, who magnetized steel needles by enclosing them in a spool of wire through which was passed electrical sparks. The needles were not uniformly magnetized, as they would have been if each spark had been single and in one direction, but the same ends of the needle sometimes exhibited a north polarity and sometimes a south polarity. This phenomenon could be explained by the to-and-fro-character of the spark, and subsequently photographs of electric sparks taken by means of a rapidly revolving mirror showed conclusively the oscillatory nature of such sparks.

I have dwelt thus long upon this general characteristic of electrical discharges because it leads us to greatly modify the old belief that a rod of large cross-section of highly conducting material forms the best conductor for lightning. On the contrary it might happen that an iron rod, although of greater resistance than a copper rod, may prove the better conductor of lightning. Electrical resistance in a conductor is only one of the factors necessary to consider, and Franklin did not know of any other. The study of electrical oscillations teaches that a lightning discharge confines itself to the mere surface of the lightning-rod, and the metal of the center of the rod is often useless. We have discovered that instead of one factor—that of resistance—there are

at least three factors which influence the path of lightning; these are, the character of the metallic conductor, whether it is iron or copper, the form and therefore the surface, and the extent of such surface, or what is called its electrical capacity. In general we should not say that an electrical discharge takes the shortest path, but rather that it takes the path along which it can oscillate in the quickest time.

Our present knowledge of the mechanism, so to speak, of the lightning discharge is largely due to photography. Photographs, however, of lightning discharges taken by the ordinary landscape lenses reveal nothing more than the unaided eye can perceive; they give no evidence of the oscillatory nature of the discharges. I have lately studied powerful electric sparks in a laboratory by means of a portrait lens of large aperture. Photographs taken by such a lens show that the spark is surrounded by an aureole its entire length, and bifurcations occur along the path of such discharge the forks of which point in opposite directions, thus showing the pulsating or oscillatory nature of the electrical discharge. If a large portrait lens like that of the Bruce photographic telescope of the Harvard Observatory should be employed to photograph lightning discharges it would undoubtedly show phenomena similar to those I have observed in the laboratory. The combination of photography with the method of the rapidly revolving mirror has given us much of our knowledge of lightning discharges. The mirror separates the to-and-fro pulsations and the photographic plate fixes the images received from the mirror; one can thus take a photograph in less than one millionth of a second. There is a common belief that the unaided eye can tell the direction of a lightning flash. To most persons the discharges appear to go from the clouds to the earth. I was interested lately in testing the supposed ability of different individuals to decide upon the direction of electrical discharges, for I have had constructed an apparatus which was capable of producing powerful sparks, the character of which was constant. A large number of trials gave no definite direction; the impression of direction of lightning is evidently psychological. It is true that the globular electrical discharge which can be produced in rarified media, or by peculiar conditions of the electrical current, has a slow movement which can be detected by the eye; but this is not the ordinary lightning flash.

I have said that a lightning flash prefers to oscillate through an air path of great apparent resistance to taking a good metallic conductor. It is a curious fact that as soon as the initial resistance of the air is broken down, the air path offers extremely little resistance; and furthermore a path a foot in length indicates very little more resistance than one an inch in length. A lightning discharge a mile long does not probably encounter more resistance while it oscillates than one a few feet in length. The initial resistance is due perhaps to the ether of space; and when what we call the ether is broken down the lightning has a free path. This initial resistance is sometimes called, in the case where sparks jump from one metallic terminal to another, the polarization of the terminals. If we consider it the resistance of the ether we can conceive the reason for the choice of path of lightning. It finds it easier to break down the ether on the air path than to establish whirls or lines of force in the ether along a metallic path which, however, is a good conductor for ordinary steady currents.

If lightning, for instance, should strike a telegraph wire it often prefers to jump to a neighboring parallel telegraph wire rather than to follow the first wire to the point where it is connected to the ground, although this latter path may be of far less resistance than the path it takes through the air. If a lightning-rod should form a V-shaped loop, the branches of the latter being of considerable extent, the discharge will often not follow these branches, but will jump across the opening of the V, thus cutting the loop out of its path. It can oscillate quicker over the air space than if it took the good conductor. We have

learned since the time of Franklin that lightning-rods on high points do not necessarily protect lower-lying points near them; a man may be struck while walking on the street near a church spire, for instance, and we know that complete protection from lightning can only be obtained by getting inside a large cage made of metal. The men below deck on an iron-clad are probably in no danger of being struck by lightning.

Are we, then, ready to proclaim that Franklin was entirely mistaken in his belief in the efficiency of lightning-rods? I do not think so. In certain cases lightning-rods, although they may not entirely protect a building, may preserve it from being seriously damaged. The Jefferson Physical Laboratory of Harvard University is protected in the following manner: Each of the chimneys is provided with rods which are connected with conductors running along the eaves; from the corners of the roof, conductors are led to the ground and are connected under ground with a conductor which entirely surrounds the building and which is connected to a permanent water supply at least ten feet below the surface of the ground. Iron pipes are driven to reach this water supply. This is as near an approach to a cage as circumstances would permit. A trolly-car has a lightning-rod in its trolly, which is connected through its motor with the rails and the ground. It is not beyond possibility, however, that a discharge descending the trolly arm should refuse to go through the motor and should seek a quicker oscillating path through the car. This is not likely to happen often, for the network of the trolly wire and the telegraph lines of a town or city, together with the electric light wires, separate and divert into many channels the electrical disturbance. The great increase of wires in our cities serves to protect from great damage by lightning; for many paths are offered to the discharges, which are thus broken up into more or less harmless sparks.

Another curious result of the oscillatory nature of ordinary lightning which was unknown to Franklin is the phenomenon of electrical resonance, which forms the basis of recent attempts to telegraph through the air without wires. Whenever a discharge of lightning occurs, there are some combinations of conductors or wires on which an electrical charge oscillates in the same time as the lightning discharge. Minute sparks can be drawn from such conductors; sparks sufficient under proper conditions to produce fires in inflammable material. Signals can be sent through the air without wires several miles, by producing an oscillating electric spark like a minute discharge of lightning, and arranging at the receiving station a resonating circuit; that is, a wire of suitable length and surface, along which an electrical charge can be produced by the action at a distance of the oscillating discharge. In the case of a thunder-storm we are apt to think that all the activity is in the upper air, whereas each discharge of lightning is responded to by pulsations over the area of the earth beneath the storm.

Franklin believed that the electrical activity of a thunder-storm was entirely confined to the clouds. It is probable that our knowledge of the disturbances that take place on the earth due to the electrical charges in the clouds is still in its infancy. The earth appears to have a permanent charge of electricity and the fluctuations of this charge at any locality produce corresponding changes even at remote points. It is thought by some investigators that we may be able to signal to China by disturbing the electrical charge of the earth in America. It is certain that we know less of electrostatics, a subject which deals with the behavior of electrical charges, than we do of electromagnetism, a subject which has been greatly developed by the discovery of the voltaic cell and the invention of the telegraph, the telephone, and the dynamo machine.

In Franklin's mind, clouds held in their depths the electrical charges which combined to form the lightning flash. It is now known that the clear sky a few hundred feet above the ground is often strongly charged with electricity. This has been proved by flying kites which are held by

wires; the wires are connected to electrical instruments which detect electrical charges, and high peaks among the Rocky Mountains are often so highly electrified that sparks can be drawn from the pointed rocks even in clear weather. We are obliged to confess, however, that we know very little more about the cause of thunder-storms than Franklin did. Some suppose that the lightning is produced by the evaporation of water; but no one has yet shown that the evaporation of water produces an electrical charge. Others believe that the charge in the thunder clouds is produced by the friction of aqueous particles in the whirling of cloud masses against each other. Faraday showed that jets of steam became electrified on issuing from narrow orifices; this electrification was due to the friction of the particles of vapor against the walls of the orifices. Although we know little more than Franklin did in regard to the cause of the high electrical condition of the clouds which constitute a thunder-storm, we are increasing our statistical knowledge of the paths of these storms and of the localities which are most often visited by them.

The two most remarkable advances, however, in our knowledge of lightning, have come during the past fifty years. In Franklin's mind lightning was a wonderful manifestation of nature's powers unrelated to anything else. It is true that he speculated upon subtle essences and hidden fires and a mysterious fluid, but he did not connect the phenomenon with the light and heat of the sun, he did not know that electric sparks could be produced by a chemical battery, or by the rapid revolution of a copper wire near the pole of a magnet, as in the case of the dynamo machine. When Benjamin Franklin had finished his experiments in electricity and was resting from his labors, a young lad, Benjamin Thompson, born in Woburn, Mass., was making experiments also in electricity and in heat. To Benjamin Thompson, who became Count Rumford, we are indebted for the greatest extension of our knowledge of lightning and its relations to the phenomena of light and heat, for he disproved the doctrine of caloric and the mysterious fires which were supposed to be the cause of manifestations of energy, and by his proof of the mechanical origin of heat laid the foundation of the great conception of the conservation of energy.

A GLIMPSE OF THE MOONSHINERS.

BY EMIL O. PETERSON.

THREE hours' ride takes one from the heart of busy civilization to a certain moonshine quarter on the slope of the Blue Ridge Mountains, where may still be found true children of nature and the primitive customs of forest dwellers.

Frequent summer excursions led to a pleasant acquaintance with the moonshiners, who, despite their irradicable penchant for "blind tigers," or stills, are quite peaceable folk—kindly inclined toward travelers and strangers—revenue officers always excepted. At first meeting they are reserved almost to childish shyness, but may be easily won to friendly conversation on familiar topics of local interest, and are ever willing to pilot tourists about unaccustomed byways.

The moonshiner is a sturdy, rugged fellow, for the most part, with no pretensions to good looks, but frank and wholesome in appearance withal. The distinctive type is a rather sandy blond, not rarely combined with dark or black eyes, bespeaking a fusion of southern blood. He speaks the dialect of his forefathers, which is a compound of the creole vernacular and broad Saxon modified to suit his primitive needs. The necessity of personal research does not appear to the moonshiner, but since the government has decreed that all children shall attend school for a prescribed season out of each year, under penalty of a considerable fine, he has, perforce, learned somewhat concerning cosmopolitan customs, and also

that the world's population is rather greater than he suspected. Formerly his knowledge of "furrin parts" was limited to the inference drawn from local preachers' lugubrious statements of the benighted heathen of some unknowable quarter of the globe; for the moonshiner is a church-goer, and his simple faith is not shaken by the speculations of our twentieth century scientists and philosophers.

Well-to-do-mountaineers make semi-annual excursions to valley towns in company with their sons, ostensibly to exchange farm produce in the markets for value in household necessities, but in reality to dispose of their "mountain dew." And thus the male population learn somewhat from association with worldly folk, and their scope of observation becomes sensibly broadened, but not sufficiently to admit of personal application in their daily walks of life.

Unfortunately the "blind tiger," as the illicit whisky trade is called, has at present a much wider range of territory than would be supposed in view of the strenuous vigilance of the law. Before the liquor law was passed in the state, license could be procured at a nominal cost to distill on a man's premises all the year round. Fifty cents was then considered a fair price per gallon. The liquor found a ready market, in valley towns principally. But now, by diminution of quantity, and also by comparison of cheap labor, the law has made the traffic the most lucrative business known to mountaineers. The average farmer's time is worth at the outside seventy-five cents a day, most commonly fifty; a man may hire himself and mule to a neighbor, in stress of crop-making, for ten cents an hour, which nets him $1.40 from sun-up to sunset—the prescribed laborer's day; whereas, by adopting a "blind tiger," he can double and triple his income many times during the season, if he can successfully elude the vigilance of the law.

The manner of distilling is uniform. The corn is converted into meal, which is put into tubs, moistened, and allowed to ferment thoroughly, this usually requiring four days; when sufficiently effervescent it is put through a boiling process and drained off through a worm coiled in a barrel, open at both ends to allow a continuous flow of cold water. It may be readily seen that the profits are considerable. A gallon sells at from $2.50 to $4, according to age and flavor. Deducting from this the cost of corn and transportation, incidentals and laborers' pay, we still have a margin of $2 net profit.

The business may be carried on for years without detection. The stills are so well hidden as to be rarely found except by accident or direct information. If built over a small stream one may sometimes be traced by a sediment of corn-meal in the creek bed, but there is comparatively little danger from this source, as the topography of the country is such that little rain streams run precipitately down from the steep inclines to the water bed, depositing loads upon loads of sand and gravel on their way to the rivers.

Usually a whisky plant is owned jointly by two or three farmers, though it is not uncommon for one man to carry on a small but thriving business. Lately a still was discovered under a dwelling-house in Gainesville, where it had in all probability been under way for some time. The smoke of the furnace escaped through the chimney and the refuse was consumed by a couple of hogs. The owner had not taken into consideration the influence of approaching hot weather, which so fermented the drainings in the pigs' trough as to lead to detection.

As the revenue men put an alluring price on authentic information concerning illicit plants, a co-worker frequently takes revenge for some insult or slight by betraying his accomplices. He receives his pay without question as to his own share in the matter. But it is a vain thing for him to imagine that he shall escape the vengeance of his victims; sooner or later retribution is dealt to the full—if not by the injured man, by his friends or some member of the family.

The officers, having been apprised of the whereabouts of the still, lurk about the place under safe cover, and at a propi-

tious time surprise the gang, take the men prisoners, totally destroy all the working apparatus, and confiscate the live stock that may be found on the premises. These raids are the darkest side of moonshine life, apart from the inevitable transgression of the law, for they are never accomplished without bloodshed or even death. The men are always prepared for the emergency with weapons of warfare, and when surrounded they fight with the courage of desperation, knowing that not only are their lives at stake, but the means of their families' support as well. In the worst event the revenue men are charged to shoot down the rebellious lawbreakers, which, unhappily, is often necessary before bringing them to subjection. The law puts a penalty of three months' imprisonment on the first offense; for the second, six months, and two years for the third. If after that a man still retains his taste for the business he must use great caution to evade the law, for if apprehended again he may be most severely dealt with. This being a state offense, the grand jury of the county in which the offense was committed may take the matter in hand upon the release of the prisoner and levy on his personal property, in case he is a land owner, in proportion to the magnitude of his offense.

I have in mind a recent case of a man who kept two stills in operation alternately; the one in Hall County, the other within the precincts of an adjoining county. When he suspected revenue inspection at the one, he simply left it and renewed operations at the other. So well did he succeed that he enlarged the working capacity of his plant to three hundred gallons of liquor per day, and was rapidly accumulating a small fortune. He was apprehended and sent to jail for six months in consideration of the magnitude of the operation, and the still was totally destroyed, together with considerable value in raw whisky. On the expiration of the state penalty his case was put into the county court, and the sum of his indebtedness to the county took every dollar of his savings. Nowise daunted, he sold a strip of land to pay for a load of corn, and put into operation his remaining still, with uninterrupted success for the space of three months. At the end of that time he was again surprised by the officers of the law, and after a year's imprisonment was fined so heavily by the county jury that he came off a pauper, with his taste for liquor traffic effectually blunted.

In spite of the government's strenuous precaution to prevent the sale of whisky, it is constantly being vended about the country in retail quantities. Wagon-loads are carried down from the mountains under a decoy cover of fruit, preferably apples, the strong, cidery scent of which effectually disguises the odor of the liquor. Commerce is carried on in towns in the very shadow of the constable, and but for the unwary purchasers who sometimes sample it on the spot the clue could not be obtained save by a systematic search of every wagon. Upon discovery, the vender's team is confiscated and he himself is put under arrest and fined heavily, as the jury may see fit. Meantime he undergoes a searching examination as to his manner of life, occupation, and local character, and if he is suspected of affiliation with an illicit distillery the law deals with him in a way that he is not likely to forget.

When a man wishes to buy liquor for sale or private use, he makes arrangement, by proxy, to have the stipulated quantity put at his disposal at a certain place in the wood; he invariably deposits the payment agreed upon in the same mysterious manner, preferably under a stone or in a hollow stump. By this ingenious device he is enabled successfully to circumvent the jury's cross-questioning, if apprehended by the law, and to plead ignorant of the seller's name or whereabouts.

Judging from present indications, the time is yet far distant when the backbone of the "blind tiger" will be broken, for the mountain passes and gorges afford ample opportunity for its effectual concealment, and popular taste runs strongly in favor of its maintenance.

The mountaineer can "live without poetry, music, and art," and even without

cooks, but he cannot live without "baccy" and "mountain dew." His predilection for strong drink is in nowise detrimental to his social status in the community. True, the clergy advise against it, and have effected a certain restriction of its use; for instance, it is a point of honor to abstain from liquor on Sundays and during the term of protracted meetings, or other times of church interest.

Last summer three young mountaineers, sons of hospitable friends of my summer jaunts, visited my home in the valley on their way southward. They had never before seen a train or any of the appurtenances of comfortable travel. They were deeply interested in the equipments of my workshop, especially the typewriter, which they believed to be a complete printing-machine, and inquired blandly whether I sold the sheets of manuscript in the streets of the neighboring town, as they had once observed in the case of a circus agent, who went about distributing circulars from house to house. They made the most of their visit by diligent inquiries as to the use of all unfamiliar objects. Yet, with all their simplicity and ignorance of the world's gait, their behavior was gentle and courteous beyond belief; and their quaint expressions and homely tales of mountain life would have delighted the heart of a philologist.

The lives of mountain women are narrowed to a pitiful compass of toil and domestic sacrifice. They are often very pretty in extreme youth, with a gentleness of expression and an inherent dignity wholly inexplicable except on the grounds of ancestral reflection; for it is certain that some of them have an infusion of good old blood. Their outdoor life gives them a peculiar softness and brilliance of coloring which, with the subtle charms of youth, lends beauty to even the plainest face; but unfortunately hard work soon does away with any beauty they may possess, and they age long before their years would warrant.

They marry very young, and then the real hardships of life begin, for until that time their mothers shield them from the heaviest burdens. When a moonshiner marries he takes his bride home to his father's house, while he puts up a shack near by, with perhaps two rooms, and they begin to work the ground around it. The little bride follows the plow with her hoe all through the long hot spring and summer, with cheerful patience and resignation. Even when the children come she does not shirk the work, but takes them with her, and the first little toddler is taught to watch over the helpless infant lying in the shadow of a wide-spreading tree at the edge of the clearing.

So the years pass in unremitting toil until the children are big enough to take her place, and all her efforts have brought only the simple necessities of life. But meanwhile, under favorable circumstances and with the outcome of the still business, the husband adds, year by year, to his dwelling; first a shed-room, then a porch and outside kitchen, and so on till the house looks like a group of little boxes pushed tightly together.

Sometimes an ambitious young man marries a valley girl, and her advent among the people works a gradual change, or, if she is of flexible grain, she becomes identical with her surroundings.

The one festival of the year must not be overlooked. It is the season of camp-meeting, which is held in various localities from the middle of August until October. Every well-to-do householder owns a tent at one or more camp grounds. It must be a very strange course of events to prevent an attendance on at least one of these social functions during a season.

A day or so before services begin the tent-holder clears his domicile from snakes, lizards, and other inhabitants that may have established themselves there in the interval. Next he puts in load after load of house-furnishings and provisions, according to his ability. The family purse has already been drained for outlay of feminine apparel—for before her marriage every girl aspires to personal adornment, and her "cotton worsteds" and light prints are fashioned with modifications of the prevailing styles, from the scope of her limited observation.

The first trumpet sounds for service at "early candle-light" on the evening of the first day. Camp-fires are lighted on tables ranging round the great open arbor where the congregation gathers to worship. After that services are held four times a day for four or five days as the case may demand.

It is jubilee week to the work-worn women whose lives are bound by the unchanging routine of daily drudgery. Here they meet the friends of girlhood and all the kinsfolk whom distance and duty prevent them from seeing at other times. They exchange visits with a delightful freedom impossible in their own homes, and learn all the news of the neighborhood for miles around.

To the young people camp-meeting is a source of many important issues, resulting in betrothals and marriages on the one hand and bitter disappointments or heartaches on the other, according to what fate may bestow upon them.

The Christmas program varies according to the social status of the community, but in all cases it is arranged for the sole benefit of the young folks. It is a time-honored custom for the young men to start out with a two-horse wagon, gather up all the girls within a prescribed circle, and repair to a convenient farmhouse for a frolic every night in the holiday week. The amusements invariably take the form of a dance—a set of cotillion exercises most properly called "twistification," and I regret to say that "mountain dew" plays a very prominent part in their entertainments, resulting, as may be supposed, in a general rumpus.

But for all that the moonshiners are not the bloodthirsty outlaws fiction would have us believe. Many good things may be said of them, as a class, and in all phases of their lives may be observed the sterling grace of generous hospitality, irrespective of race or creed—with one exception—revenue officers.

THE RISE IN THE PRICE OF BREAD.

BY MAGGIORINO FERRARIS.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

THE unfavorable reports of the wheat crop in Europe and the visible decrease in the consignments of this grain on both sides of the ocean have recently produced a notable rise in the price of wheat and of bread. As is usual in similar circumstances, loud cries are being raised by millions of families who see their necessary domestic economy greatly interfered with. The complainings are acuter in the larger cities, where the families do not make their own bread but buy it at a baker's. To the present high price is added the fear of another rise in the near future, at a time when the sufferings of the various social classes in Italy are still so general on account of the decrease in profits, the lack of work, and the smallness of wages. More and more urgent, therefore, are the demands for relief to be given by the state or municipal authorities, which surely neither can nor ought to remain indifferent to a question of so much influence in the welfare of the people.

Let us, therefore, calmly examine the problem and study its practical solution, following in the tracks of an excellent work recently published by Count Augusto Poggi, under the auspices of the "Society of Economic Welfare at Rome."

The price of bread, especially in dense communities, depends on the following elements: the commercial value of wheat, the duty on the same on its admission to the country; the cost of grinding, or the difference between the price of the grain and that of the flour; the municipal tax on flour, bread, and cake; and the expense of making and selling the bread..

It is unnecessary to recall that the commercial value of wheat, especially in years of failing crops, is no longer determined by

the internal production of each country, but by the sum total of the conditions of all the markets of the world. It is in such years that the import duty tends to react in all its force on the price of grain and flour. To the prices quoted at the great ports of entry of Italy it is therefore necessary to add the duty at the present rate of $1.50 per quintal in gold, and then the exchange on gold, which in round numbers may be counted at five per cent. (A quintal equals 220.46 pounds avoirdupois.)

The cost of grinding the cereals, since the great progress in modern industry, is being constantly restricted within narrower limits. Leaving aside the country mills, the grinding of the grain tends to be concentrated in two different types of mills by a perfect system: the great establishment capable of producing more than five hundred quintals per day, and the small operator with a production of about one hundred quintals. The last word has not yet been said as to whether the large or the small type of mill is the more economical, although both belong to the category of the great modern industries.

Whoever studies to-day the question of bread in Italy must take as his point of departure the local price of flour, particularly the price of the second quality, marked "B" in the different lists, as this is the grade everywhere used for making white bread. The lists of the principal merchants indicate to-day these prices with the same regularity and precision as the quotations of the stock exchange.

Another fact which may have grave consequences is being pointed out in the flour trade. It is the tendency of the larger mills of each locality to agree together on the price of grain and flour. The three enormous mills of Rome which once carried on such lively competition with one another, to the great benefit of the producers of grain and of the consumers of bread, are to-day combined into a single company, which at certain times has a real monopoly in the handling of grain and flour. The tendency is equally injurious to the producers of wheat and to the consumers of bread in the cities. City and country are equally interested in resisting it.

The limits within which this monopoly may actually make its action felt are essentially circumscribed by the railroad and navigation tariffs and by the custom-house duties on flour. Grain and flour are merchandise that is not able to travel very far under the present railroad tariffs. The lowering of these to even a small degree would of itself establish a competition in each locality between the different mills in the buying of wheat and the selling of flour.

Another element which may be a cause of dear bread is the national tariff on flour coming from abroad, when this does not exactly correspond with the tariff on wheat. To-day foreign flours pay $2.40 per quintal on the frontier, and statistics tell us that their importation is almost nothing, hardly amounting to an average of ten thousand quintals annually during recent years. This means that home production has a monopoly of the national market. And this may be the result of the disproportion between the tariff on wheat and that on flour.

It is generally claimed that one hundred and twenty pounds of wheat yield one hundred pounds of flour. With the tariff on wheat at $1.50 per quintal, that on flour ought to be $1.80 per quintal. It is necessary that only a slight margin of protection be allowed to the millers of the country, because those in the interior are already protected by the cost of transportation of foreign flour. It would seem just that, the present duty on wheat being granted, the duty on flour should not exceed $2 per quintal, especially on account of the tendency of the larger mills to combine.

The large cities, moreover, impose a consumers' tax on flour, which varies from forty cents to $1.40 per quintal. This causes a corresponding increase of from one quarter of a cent to three quarters of a cent per pound in the price of bread. This is one of the worst possible taxes, because, falling upon the consumption of an absolute necessity, it bears heavily upon the common people. The cost of bread represents

a much larger percentage of the income of a laborer's family than of that of a wealthy family. The municipal consumers' tax possesses in itself none of the mitigating qualities of the national tariff. The latter has an economical and fiscal scope, while the former has an exclusively fiscal function. Therefore this tax assumes a character of real injustice in those communities of the South and of Sicily in which it is very high.

The cost of manufacturing bread varies perceptibly from place to place, and according to the different forms and qualities of the bread. Small loaves cost more than large ones. At Paris the cost is estimated at $2.45 for every quintal of flour used; at Rome, Poggi fixes the cost at $2 for the same amount. In the abstract it would appear that an increase in the number of bakeries ought to establish a competition that would decrease the price of manufacture and benefit the consumer. In reality the contrary often happens. On account of the excessive number of bakeries it is impossible to utilize all their capacity of production. The general expenses are divided among a smaller number of pounds of bread and increase the cost of each.

In many cases the expense of retailing is remarkable, as the commissions granted to the dealers vary from ten to fourteen per cent.

The "Cooperative Union of Employees at Rome," which manufactures from three to five thousand pounds of bread per day, according to the season, presents the following data: price of flour inside of the city, grade B, $7.90 per quintal; consumers' tax, seventy cents; price of bread, first quality, four cents per pound, second quality, three and one half cents per pound. A quintal of flour makes an average of two hundred and sixty-five pounds of bread. If the price of flour, therefore, should continue to increase, it would be difficult to avoid another rise in the price of bread.

These experimental data, drawn from a long practical experience, lead to two results. In the first place, they give us trustworthy elements with which to put an end to academic discussions about the price of bread, which often end in empty declamations against the bakers or against the local authorities. Every citizen may calculate the fair price of bread in his own community. It is only necessary to add together the local price of flour, the consumers' tax, and the cost of labor, then divide this sum by the number of pounds of bread obtained from a quintal of flour.

The practical data just set forth lead us at once to point out the means likely to make the price of bread go down.

The elements in the cost of bread are of two kinds: commercial elements, as the price of the wheat, the cost of grinding, and the cost of manufacture; artificial elements, as the national tariff and the consumers' tax.

The state and the communities cannot exert a great influence on the commercial elements in the cost of bread. These are the result of a complex of circumstances upon which the action of public authority must be slow and of small moment.

The state may facilitate the loading and unloading of grain at the seaports; it may above all enliven the trade in native grain by planting storehouses or elevators at the railroad stations of the grain-producing belts. Worthy of study is the example furnished us recently by the Prussian government, which, in accordance with proper laws, requires its parliament to vote the funds necessary for the construction of granaries at certain railroad stations. These are institutions that are useful both to the farmers and to the consumers, and by means of certificates of deposit greatly help rural credit and the trade in cereals.

More immediate effects would be derived in Italy from a reduction in the charges for transportation of grain and flour by railroad. Such a provision is absolutely demanded of the government in order to free the capital of the country from the combination of the great mills of Rome, which is injurious at once to the producers and to the consumers. Let the railroad companies adopt two series of more moderate special tariffs, the one for transporting grain from the country around Rome to the mills of Naples and central Italy, the other for car-

rying flour to Rome from the mills of other regions, in order to check the monopoly of the company of millers at Rome. Let us recommend this vital and permanent interest of the population of Rome to the daily press of the capital, which is so justly concerning itself about the high price of bread.

Of the artificial elements in the price of bread, namely the national tariff and the consumers' tax, the action may be modified from day to day by public authority, either national or communal. A tariff of $1.50 per quintal on wheat is excessive, considering the high prices of to-day, as it would have been in 1892–93; on the other hand it is insufficient in a period of great abundance throughout the world, as is proved by the quotations of 1894–96, which show almost continually in our internal markets prices ranging downward from $4 per quintal. Such prices in our present agricultural conditions in Italy are inadequate.

A long and careful examination of the problem has convinced me that for our fixed tariff of $1.50 per quintal we should substitute a variable tariff, to be regulated, not by the price of the grain, but by the price of flour. I should think it would be practicable to take as a basis the price $7 per quintal for flour of grade B at the mill. This would correspond for the farmer to a price of about $4.80 per quintal of grain delivered. The tariff ought to be regulated by royal decree at fixed periods, for example at the end of every three months, and with a liberal allowance. This would eliminate in practice the uncertainties that the movable scale would produce in the trade in cereals.

As long as the tariff on grain is a necessity, the proposed system would be equally just for both the farmer and the consumer, and would furnish good protection to the finances in the years of abundant harvest which will not be slow in coming. If such a tariff *régime* had been already in operation, it would have prevented the recent rise in price of flour and bread which is creating so much discontent in the country, and would have given to the people a safe guarantee against other dreaded rises in the price. In their turn the finances of the country would have their benefit from more stable and perhaps greater revenues. In the good years, which are the more numerous, a higher tariff is demanded; in the bad years compensation is made by greater importations.

A modest but good proposal is that which Signor Poggi offers to the Italian communities, following the example of the municipality of Paris, which proceeds every two weeks to an official valuation of the price of bread. The basis is as follows: to the current fluctuating price of flour per quintal within the city is added the fixed sum of $2.45, which represents the expenses of making bread, of selling it, and the industrial profit of the Parisian baker. This sum is divided by 286, on the estimate that one quintal of flour yields that many pounds of Paris bread of large form.

On this point M. Edmond Théry, director of the *Économiste Européen*, writes that ordinary bread of the first quality is generally sold at the average price fixed by the municipal administration. Sometimes, however, a few bakers sell it for a little lower price.

The idea is simple, plain, and practical. Let the Italian municipalities which intend to do something useful and immediate, adopt it. They have only to determine, once for all, two local data: the cost of making bread and the average return from one quintal of flour, according to the form of the bread in use. This practical and simple provision would probably be gratifying to the better class of bakers themselves, who would not see themselves the object of continual attack, often so unjustifiable.

The price of bread is a problem of the highest importance to a country; it is a question of hygiene, of morality, and of social peace. The state and the cities cannot be entirely without interest in it. It is only necessary to remember that the national tariff and the municipal tax alone make bread dearer by one cent or more per pound, according to the locality. When bread rises in price, the people have a right to turn to the national government or to the communal government, because it is the taxes which greatly aggravate the condition

of the consumers. The recent increase in the price of bread has awakened an active discontent in the country. But the great mass of the people like to grumble, at the same time remaining inactive and resigned, and consenting to wait for the public authorities to do something. If, however, the price of wheat, and therefore of flour and bread, should continue to rise, it would be absolutely necessary to make some decisive and immediate provision.

The action of the tariff provision already mentioned in this paper can be rendered more intense by a complex of other measures, useful in themselves, but not able alone to act appreciably on the price of bread. These are the introduction of special railroad tariffs for grain and flour, in order to check the local monopoly of great mills, especially at Rome; the official valuation of the price of bread in each city, by the municipal authority, as at Paris; the planting of cooperative mills; the establishing of strong cooperative companies of consumers; with the management of the bakeries; and finally the subscribing by the great masses of the public to the cooperative food companies that have been prospering for years in Turin, Milan, Rome, and elsewhere. The whole of these measures would no doubt have a perceptible effect on the price of bread, while any of them alone is insufficient.

The considerations here set forth are not counseled by a theoretical study of the question, but by a practical experience gained in the management of the great Cooperative Society of Employees at Rome and from accurate investigations made with my colleagues of the Society of Economic Welfare at Rome.

THE JAPANESE ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

BY JOHN E. BENNETT.

IT is estimated that there are at the present time resident within the United States about 15,000 subjects of Japan. Owing to the greater contiguity of the seaboard of the Pacific to that of the Island Empire, nearly all of these are upon the Pacific coast. A few filter through the states east of the Rockies and finally settle upon the Atlantic side, but they are isolated individuals, impelled thither by the higher phases of trade or pursuing more exalted branches of learning, and they do not present types or carry among the people of their locations the conditions of the presence of a Japanese population existing side by side with the civilization of the Caucasian race. These conditions can only be studied in those parts of the United States where this quality of oriental life appears as a sort of avulsion from the body of its nation; where it presents the character of a concretion of its commonality deposited in a mass among the inhabitants of the country and struggling for assimilation there, and nowhere within the United States does this status abide except within the states of the Pacific coast.

The advent of the Japanese here long postdates that of the Chinese. California became conscious of their presence in the early eighties; but their immigration was during all that decade very gradual and desultory, so that in 1890 their number upon the entire coast was computed at but 1,225. In the two years following, however, the accessions as tallied by the immigration inspectors reckoned 2,634, besides large and indefinite numbers who came thither by way of Victoria overland to the various points within the country whither they were distributed. In 1893 the inspectors counted arrivals of 1,380; in 1894 there were 1,931; in 1895, 1,150; 1896, 561, and in 1897, 724, making a total of 9,605, being about one half the aggregate, which would thus comprise a total accretion to our population of about 17,000. Of these it is believed that 2,000 have returned to Japan, leaving the gross estimate of 15,000 as still respiring upon American soil. Of these, 5,000

ANGLO-JAPANESE SCHOOL, METHODIST EPISCOPAL MISSION, SAN FRANCISCO.

are in San Francisco, 5,000 are in various other parts of California, and 5,000 are scattered through the remaining coast states and the country.

It may be said upon the whole that the Japanese immigrants are all male, all young, and all poor. A few young females have been imported, but they came for no good purpose, and the two Japanese consuls upon the coast, one at San Francisco, the other at Tacoma, have strenuously and quite successfully operated to check the introduction of this class. Their efforts have narrowed the numerals which express the total annual arrivals of these aliens to some very shallow figures, and the religious societies have set upon the moral cleansing of those here, and with their homes and missionaries have effected such change in their ethical status that the bulk of them is no longer obnoxious as residents. Very few, indeed, are the Japanese in America who have families; only, perhaps, a dozen or so in the entire state of California, and these do not assemble their habitations in localities, as do the Chinese, thereby constituting distinct towns or neighborhoods of their own nationality, but their abodes are sprinkled about among those of the whites and do not differ from them in exterior or interior appearance. As for the Japanese "boys," as they are called, they who do not find lodging at the missions, or in the abodes of those who employ them as domestics, teem in the interior spaces of the Japanese boarding-houses.

Of these latter there are five in San Francisco, three of which shape their accomodations to the entertainment of agriculturists and general travelers, while the other two specialize in the particular of sailors. Nor do these houses vary in their outer profile from those of contiguous structures occupied by whites. They are usually large buildings once inhabited by wealthy denizens who built their dwellings upon the

outer rim of the business center, but who have long since been driven thence by the encroachments upon the neighborhood of the shops and the degeneration of the district through incursions of all the elements of small traffic. Against the door-jambs of these pretentious but sadly *passé* structures will hang the perpendicular sign of the Japanese boarding-house, bearing its column of Asiatic symbols, this alone indicating the uses to which the edifice is now devoted. Within, the number of those who find shelter fluctuates with the changing intensity of the demand. A host of one of these has testified that the capacity of his house was fifteen, but on a pinch he could take care of forty; there were those who thought they remembered instances when his place had contained a hundred, and there are Japanese in Seattle who have retired upon the mats of a like hostelry in that city when the guests were a multitude of eight hundred.

The reckoning of each of these is forty cents per day for food and lodging. There is no register kept except of the names of those who are strangers to the proprietor, and this roll is not so much a roster for the information of the respective guests and the public or for regulating the accounts of the house as it is a memorandum for the convenience of the proprietor. Most of the patrons of a particular house are adventurers from the certain province of Japan from whence came the host. Thus the hotel of Maruyama, on Banning Street, is favored by the arrivals from Wakayama, and those who patronize the establishment of Kishi, on O'Farrall Street, hail mostly from Osaka. When it occurs, therefore, that one of these falls short in meeting his reckoning, the affable host smiles, cackles a few monosyllabic sounds, and reposes his confidence in the future and the varied capacities of his guests, conscious that the payment is but deferred. And so constant are his countrymen in this respect that one of the Bonifaces once stated that he had trusted a thousand and had never lost a cent.

STAFF OF JAPANESE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CLERGYMEN ON THE PACIFIC COAST.

JAPANESE MISSION OF THE METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH, SAN FRANCISCO.

But those Japanese who patronize the boarding-houses are the inconsiderable minority in the cities. By far the larger number are employed as household servants and in various kindred lines in hotels and restaurants. They are young, small, clean, bright, industrious, polite, good natured. They do not smoke opium as do the Chinese, and they do not drink liquor as do too many of the laboring whites. They have few if any vices; on the contrary they are generally inspired with a desire to possess an American education, and they have visions of some day attaining this and returning to Japan equipped to engage in some of the higher, more profitable occupations of life. This is the class which moves from Japan to the United States to become educated; and I estimate that there are about five thousand of these now in America. It is with this type that the local sectarian missions are now working such astonishing results; for this character of individual is not only becoming educated but is becoming Christianized. There are in San Francisco at the present time seven Japanese missions existing under the auspices and patronage of the Protestant Church. There is one belonging to the Episcopal Church; the Methodist Episcopal Church has three, the Presbyterian has two, and the Seventh Day Adventists have one. Besides these there is a Young Men's Christian Association and a Gospel Society. All of these institutions are officered by Japanese. An American missionary of each sect exercises a general supervision over the entire movement of his denomination, but the assistants are all Japanese. The pastors have become such through their studies, usually in coast seminaries, and after a probation spent in some mission here they are generally sent to Japan to start churches of their faith and spread its teachings to the people there.

Throughout the states of the coast, wherever there are enough Japanese to comprise a small congregation, one or more of these missions have been established. It is estimated that there are in all about thirty upon the coast. They are at once churches, schools, employment bureaus, dormitories, and refectories. The schools are conducted in the afternoons and at night and their attendance numbers from a dozen or twenty up to a hundred or more. The Japanese on arriving in San Francisco may eschew the boarding-house if he desires, and repair at once to the mission. Here he will be taken in, a position as servant will be procured for him, and he will become installed as a member of the home.

anese consuls have asserted themselves the guardians of every under-age subject of their emperor within their respective districts, and the city attorney of San Francisco has given it as his opinion that such being the fact the Japanese minors sojourning within the city are residents. Being residents they are entitled to free attendance at the public schools, with the same rights and privileges accorded children of California. It is pointed out that the Japanese are practically non-taxable and that the total assessment of their property does not average a dollar and fifty cents per head. The citizens of California are therefore taxing themselves to educate a body of foreigners whose advancement, as they are taught to believe, not only is of no interest to them but is even a positive detriment, since by the rise of Japanese industry and commerce Californians may be worsted in their own markets.

"At most," they say, "the Japanese confer no favor except upon those for whom they labor, while all property bears the expense of fitting them with education; and since the burden cannot be imposed solely upon those who profit through their toil, then let the Japanese laborers be excluded from entry into the United States as are the Chinese. For in order to educate themselves they must first find employment, and if they are denied entry to seek employment we shall be spared the expense of their teaching."

And this demand that the Japanese laborers shall be excluded has strengthened into a movement which has more than once knocked at the doors of congressional legislation and even yet contemplates, in 1900, another, and it hopes successful, effort there. If it shall succeed and secure the extension of the operation of the same laws against the Japanese that now obtain in the instance of the Chinese, without doubt the education of Japanese will practically cease in California, and the great light by which a lately barbarous people are largely finding their way to a higher plane of civilization will be extinguished. That this will vastly decrease the influence of American thought and methods in the Orient there is no question; and there are those who also maintain that it will greatly impair the relations of trade which now exist between the two nations.

JAPANESE WORKERS IN THE HOP BEDS AT VACAVILLE.
Members of the Vacaville Methodist Church. Rev. M. C. Harris in the center.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

THANKSGIVING ON HERRING HILL.

BY JULIA M. TENNEY.

"GOOD-BY, Aunt Susan. Take good care of yourself and the house, and we will be home again on Saturday"—and Mrs. Van Arsdale drew her head in at the carriage window, the coachman settled his robes about him, and the family was off to take Thanksgiving dinner at the old homestead ten miles away.

Aunt Susan stood watching the departing vehicle till a corner of the street hid it from view; then, turning quickly to the other servants who had assembled to bid the family good-by, she began giving her orders in a tone of such briskness as would certainly have surprised the absent mistress of the house, always accustomed to the meekest, softest speeches from this mountain of colored flesh who reigned over her kitchen.

"Here, you Jane! Don' you be er-standin' dar gappin' down de street all day, as'o you spec' all dis here wuk gwine do hisse'f! Don' you know dis 's Thanksgibin' day, an' dar 'll be fifty ob de ladies an' gemmun ob our 'quaintance here to-night for to 'joy de supper we-uns got to 'vide? You go kill fo' ob dem good-sized hens—de big speckle' ones what roosts low, whar de rats mought er reached 'em if we's axed about 'em. Now min' you don' make no mistake an' git massa's young chickens, ca'se I's lef' in charge ob dis here place, an' I ain' gwine 'low de t'ings what de fambly prize to be 'sturbed—not if I knows it. Here, Patrick Henry, you and George Washington come kerry ebry blessed bit ob de furniture, 'cep'n' jes' de table an' cheers, outen dis here dinin'-room, an' set it in de parlor, an' I'll lock de do', so dey'll be all safe an' soun'. Polly, you come he'p me beat up er couple ob cakes an' some doughnuts—I spec' what wid de chickens dey'll be our full share, er-countin' de wuk an' 'sponsibility—which ain' no light matter."

In a few minutes the whole place was astir, for these trusty servants had determined to make a grand success of this Thanksgiving supper, to be held in their absent master's beautiful large dining-room.

"Yer see, Polly," continued Aunt Susan in a sanctimonious tone, as she and Polly helped themselves liberally to the ingredients for their cakes—"yer see how all t'ings wuk togeder fur good, jes' as Elder Jones say las' Sunday night. Dis time las' week prospec's look moughty black fur dis here supper, but now de good Lord's done 'ranged ebryting jes' right; de whole fambly done gone away, an' dey done took dat meddlin', tattlin' ole Mammy wid 'em, an' my key jes' fit de sto'-room lock, an' de sunshine ob prosperity is above us!" and Aunt Susan wound up with a flourish of the cake spoon and a tone that an orator might have envied.

"Yes'm, dat's so; you cert'nly is a pow'ful argyfier, maw!" said Polly with admiration.

"Oh, we's all got our share ob talons, as Mis' Van Arsdale call it, an' I's conshus I ain' bin lef' out entirely," replied the modest "argyfier."

"Well if here ain' Lindy Jackson!" she exclaimed in a moment. "How in de land's name did she git here dis time er day! Mis' Smith's dat stric' wid her gals dat dey don' giner'ly git out till decent folks is in bed. How's yer, Miss Lindy? Walk in an' draw a cheer an' take a seat. Won' yer res' yer shawl?"—as a tall dowdy mulatto girl with a shawl flung over her head and a suspicious looking protuberance under one corner of it made her appearance at the kitchen door.

"I's fairly well, Mis' Washington. How yer fin' yerse'f? Howdy, Polly. I ain' got er minit ter stay! I jes' run down wid dis

here pie (it's mince-meat an' fus' rate) while Mis' Smith's down town er-buyin' ob her nuts an' raisins. If I kin manage ter git anything else I'll fotch it wid me when I come ter-night."

"S'pose Mis' Smith miss dis here?" asked Aunt Susan as she turned the pie around, looking at it with the eye of a connoisseur.

"Ha! ha!" laughed the playful Lindy, "I's got all dat fixed. Dar was a 'spicious lookin' tramp at de kitchen do' dis mo'nin' while de pies wus er-settin' on de table; dat's all I wants to clar me. 'Liza sant word you could trus' her to bring er bunch ob celery when she come ter-night. Good-by, I mus' be off now an' chase myse'f home 'fore Mis' Smith gits back"—and Miss Jackson disappeared as rapidly as she had come.

"Dat gal's moughty cute, an' gifted wid what Miss Flora call 'tacks' in gitten outen scrapes!" said Aunt Susan admiringly as she handed Polly the pie to put in a safe place till the hour of need.

"Dat's so! dat's so!" replied Polly, who rarely varied her replies unless astonishment forced an emphatic "I vow!" from her lips.

Jane now returned with the four dead chickens, which she began to pick and clean at the sink, while she sang in a high loud soprano voice:

I n-e-e-d thee every h-o-u-r.

Patrick Henry and George Washington (the former, butler, the latter, stable boy in the Van Arsdale establishment) reported the furniture moved, and were sent by Aunt Susan on a collecting tour to the various houses where the expected guests were employed, with very minute directions that George Washington, who was "a pow'ful blund'rer," was not to "go in any ob de kitchens, but jes' wait outside, out ob sight ob de winders, wid de bigges' market-basket and de gallon milk bucket," while Patrick Henry went in to urge the ladies to be generous.

The first house they visited was Dr. Cooke's, and Mrs. Sarah Primus, who attended to the culinary department, was watching with a quart of beautiful large oysters—whose absence would not be noticed when the cold-water spigot had done its duty.

She just had time to whisper, "I'll bring some cold turkey and a pan of milk jes' as soon as dinner is over here," when the door opened and the lady of the house entered hurriedly, saying, "Sarah is that the oyster man going out with the tin pail?"

"Y–y–yes'm," stammered Sarah with lucky truthfulness.

"Well, stop him quick and tell him to bring me an extra quart of selected oysters; there are more guests coming than I expected when I gave my order."

Sarah sped through the hall, her thoughts keeping time with her feet. "Here, you man! Oyster man," she screamed, "Mis' Cooke say bring her ernother quart ob oysters." Then seeing the puzzled look on her friend's face she added with a knowing wink, "You come from Cod's, didn't yer? Well, tell him we wants big ones for fries."

And with a sense of relief that made her feel as light as air she shut the door, and in a moment more was back in the kitchen, the "good-natured, honest soul" whom her mistress relied upon.

Lieutenant Paul's was the next kitchen visited, and here Mrs. Mahala Reed reigned supreme and "nothing was kept under lock and key." Mrs. Mahala consequently was a very generous contributor, and, the family being at church, Mr. Jackson was taken in to look at the parlors and dining-room and try the new piano in the music-room, while Mrs. Reed called George Washington in and placed in his basket numerous packages of sugar, tea, coffee, etc., etc., surpassing herself by adding not only a beautiful large mold of jelly, a small pound cake—"jes' de scrapin's ob de pan, yer know"—but two bottles of the lieutenant's best sherry, one of which George Washington and Patrick Henry Jackson shared in the next alley, filling the empty bottle with the best of hydrant water at the corner. So cheered were they by generosity and wine that their fascinations won large donations from the next three or four houses.

But prosperity was not to continue unabated, and these honorable gentlemen were to meet with a most unkind rebuff at Major Peters', whose door they would certainly have passed had not the fumes of the wine and the chat by the fire of the next-door house rather confused them. For here Aunt Hannah Norris lived as cook, and her husband Adam had been butler for twenty years, and their strict honesty and unfearing truthfulness made them a perpetual terror to the evil-doers of "Herrin' Hill." More than one "misfortunate young pusson" had met with open and pointed rebuke in the face of the assembled congregation of Ebenezer Church at the "weekly experience and conference meetings," where Uncle Adam's tall, portly figure was a familiar and awe-inspiring sight, while the numerous badges which adorned Aunt Hannah's spacious bosom on funeral occasions showed her to belong to many honorable societies, such as "The Rising Sons and Daughters of Moses and Aaron," "The Ancient Daughters of Tabitha," "The Burying Society of the Good Samaritan," "The Galilean Fisherman," and others too numerous to mention; so it is easy to be seen that it was an unprecedented act of recklessness on the part of these two collectors to venture in here on such an errand.

Aunt Hannah turned from the oven where she had been basting her turkey, the loud knock at the door startling her so that the corners of her bandanna handkerchief literally stood up over her head and her glasses nearly dropped to the floor. She soon recovered her dignity, however, and closing the oven she quietly opened the kitchen door and stood facing the young men with questioning disapproval.

"Good-mornin', Aunt Hannah," said Patrick Henry with assumed nonchalance. George Washington cowered before the stately figure in the doorway, and would quickly have "made hisse'f sca'ce" if Patrick Henry had not bolstered up his own courage by laying a detaining hand upon his arm and saying, "Here's George Washington, Mis' Norris, what's er-collectin' a few donations from dem as likes to give to de poo' ob de town, and he's called, knowin' you and Mr. Norris always heads de charities in our church, an' would like to do sumpen here," and he paused, out of breath with his own eloquence.

Aunt Hannah surveyed the collectors over her brass-rimmed spectacles, then motioning with her hand she said with some suspicion, "Come in, young men, an' splain dis here business a leetle clearer. What poo' ob de town is you er-collectin' fur? If dey's de Lord's poo', den Hannah Norris ain' de one ter hol' back, but de Lord ain' often beholden to sech as you-uns ter do his collectin' fur him, an' I's always been s'picious ob you, Patrick Henry Jackson, eber sence Lawyer Jones' black mare wur deskivered foundered in de stable de same night ob de day dat you made sech a fine show ob yerse'f on a black horse as marshal in dat percession down at Lowtown."

"Lor, Aunt Hannah! Ain' you neber gwine ter forgit dat coincidunce? Dat's all it wur—jes' a coincidunce."

"I don' know nothin' 'bout what kin' er 'dunce it wur, but I ain' sech a dunce myse'f as I can't see fru a wall wid er hole in it. Now be spry an' jes' tell me what you an' George Washington is arter, 'ca'se I got plenty ter do 'thout fillin' up my time with un-useful chatter."

The account of their charitable undertaking which these two city missionaries gave was evidently very unsatisfactory to Aunt Hannah, and her suspicions momentarily increased as the replies to her searching questions grew more embarrassed and contradictory. Finally uncertainty was turned to certainty in her mind, and in her righteous indignation she rose, the corners of her turban standing up like avenging horns and the white kerchief crossed over the bosom of her purple calico dress rising and falling with her contending emotions.

"Yer mis'able pair er young thieves!" she cried. "What yer mean er-comin' roun' to hones' people's homes er-temptin' dem to de debil's tricks? Geder up yer traps an' clear outen dis here kitchen, an' lemme open de do's an' winders fur de

pure breff ob heaben ter purify dis air 'fore I breave 'tamination!"

"I's no thief!" thundered Patrick Henry. "I ain' neber stole nothin' in my life, an' I won' 'low no man nor woman nuther to insult me!"

"Yer ain' no thief!" cried Aunt Hannah, not in the least frightened by the half-drunken swagger of her opponent. "Yer ain' no thief, ain' yer? What was yer dat night at de parlor social at Broder Barber's house, when yer strut 'roun' de flo' in Mars Jim Van Arsdale's swaller-tail coat? Yer warn' no thief dat Sunday las' summer when de fambly war out ob town an' trus' you wid de stables, an' you take de madam's own kerridge and bays an' rides dem simp'rin' Bundy girls all 'roun' fru de Park! Yer warn' no thief when Mars Van Arsdale buy yer time, an' pay yer hones' fur it, an' leabe yer to keer fur de garden an' house while he at de ocean, an' you spen' er week at er time 'thout eber settin' foot nigh de place! Oh, yer ain' no thief, ain' yer? Well, yer don' look like sech a pow'ful hones' man, not by de lights I been taught ter lib by"—and Aunt Hannah paused for want of breath.

"I don' keer!" muttered Patrick Henry sulkily, as he edged toward the door, closely followed by the terrified George Washington. "I neber kep' nobody's t'ings. I returned all dem little t'ings dat I borrowed."

"Yer returned 'em all, did yer? Did yer return de wear an' tear yer got outen dat coat, an' de skin an' paint what yer rubbed offen dat team when yer upsot down der bank, an' de flowers what died 'ca'se yer didn' water 'em in dat garding, an' de time what yer stole from dat marster what trus'ed yer? Adam, I's glad yer come in here—" as her gray-haired, dignified partner appeared in the doorway, drawn by the sounds of angry voices—"I's glad yer come, fur dese young liars is insults to de air what hones' people breave!"—and she held the outside door open, and looking at the "insults" pointed majestically to the kitchen porch.

They stood not upon the order of their going, but went at once, while Aunt Hannah seethed and bubbled in wrathful denunciations to Adam, who fully sympathized with his wife, and promised that as soon as the noonday dinner was over he would use his half-holiday in seeing Brother Jones and undertaking that (to many human beings) pleasurable task of confessing his brother's faults.

Meantime the crestfallen and now tolerably sobered young men went on their way, but in a decidedly spiritless manner; indeed so great was the change in Mr. Jackson, known to the Parlor Social Club of the Ancient Dorcas as the "lady-killer," that several of the belles of Herring Hill, after receiving gloomy calls, to which they responded to the best of their mistresses' ability, ran out to the alley gates adjoining their respective homes and then and there foreswore for the future all captivating efforts in his direction.

At length the bucket was about filled with thank-offerings of oysters, while the piled market-basket caused serious embarrassment and some narrow escapes in its transit to the Van Arsdale home, for the people were now coming home from the churches, and one or two had turned and glanced wonderingly at the well-known and much-desired Van Arsdale butler. Had the corporation doctor attended to his calling upon a commission basis his eyes would have lingered with less criticism and much real joy upon the heterogeneous collection in that basket, which promised him such a busy future. Caution had its reward, however, and the bucket and basket, with their human attendants, reached their destination in safety.

Aunt Susan met the young men with exclamations of delight. For her resources were not limited even to the bountiful supplies which they brought; during their absence not a few great generous souls had found the hour of worship a favorable one in which to exercise that virtue from which it should never be divorced, the twice blessed one of giving, and already the long table had taken on quite a festive appearance and the key of the dining-room door was deemed safest in Aunt Susan's pocket.

But, even in the midst of the elation attendant upon the evidently approaching suc-

cess, Aunt Susan could not help observing the uneasy George Washington and crest-fallen Patrick Henry.

"What's der matter wid you-uns anyway?" she burst out at length. "Yer goin' 'roun' like er dog wid his tail atween his legs! Is yer got in any scrapes in dis here business?"

Then they told her of their late experience, not considering it worth while to detain her on this busy day by relating that the contents of one of the sherry bottles was at the root of the whole trouble. Aunt Susan for one moment looked thoroughly scared, and throwing her short fat arms into the air exclaimed: "Lor sakes! now yer done it! I wouldn't be s'prised if dat o'nery old critter of a Hannah Norris had de whole p'lice force down here on de fron' porch by sundown!" Then, seeing the terrifying effect of her words upon her audience, she continued in a different tone: "Well, well! 'tain' no use cryin' ober spilt milk! I spec' we's a match fur dat woolly-headed old meddler, so don' git down 'n de mouf. De 'Lord he'ps dem what he'ps 'emse'ves,' dat's what de Book say, an' we cert'nly is been er-he'pin' er'se'ves dis day!"

Aunt Susan always felt better after quoting Scripture, so now with restored cheerfulness she slapped Patrick Henry on the back, patted George Washington's stupid head, and beginning to unpack the basket said, "You'se done bery well indeed dis mornin', boys, so perk up, an' ack cheerful!"

"Can't ack cheerful when yer feelin's is 'sulted an' stomped on like mine has been!" said the sensitive and bruised Mr. Jackson sulkily.

"Oh, feelin's! Bother take yer feelin's, I say! Ack cheerful an' de feelin's 'll git dar from de actin'!" replied Aunt Susan, unconscious of how high a place she showed herself worthy of taking in the class of the worldly wise.

Truly "All the world's a stage," and "Act! act!" is the cry of all classes.

To pursue the figure a step further, let us follow the ladies of our party into the "green room," as a few hours later they resorted thither to make their evening toilets.

It was the large front chamber usually occupied by the lady of the house, but to-night to be used as a cloak-room. The blinds had been carefully closed and the shades drawn down—could it be for the purpose of keeping out the cold air? The gas burned brightly and the light fell full upon Mrs. Susan Washington, as she stood in front of the long glass holding her breath till her eyes literally bulged from the sockets, while Jane (who as upper chamber-maid was a good deal about the dressing-rooms, so was supposed to be an authority upon toilets) strained till the belt of Mrs. Van Arsdale's second best black silk (unfortunately she had worn the best one herself) gave a warning crack, in her efforts to make it meet around Aunt Susan's forty-two inch waist.

"'Tain' no use, Mis' Washington, 'twon' meet, not by six inches; but I kin jes' pin it on each side, an' dar's a han'some pink sash in Miss Flora's bureau what I kin pin ober de gap. It's er long train, so it won' hitch up much in de back nohow."

"Yes," said the suffering victim of the prolonged squeeze, "but what 'n de land's name 'll I do 'bout de wais'?"

Jane looked blank for a moment, but her brow cleared directly and she stepped to the wardrobe and produced a lavender silk breakfast sacque, with a cascade of soft creamy lace falling its full length from the throat, and helped the short arms of Aunt Susan into the sleeves.

"Lor, maw, yer do look gran'! Now if you jes' would lemme put some dis here powder on yer hair (coaxingly) yer'd take de shine clean offen Mis' Van Arsdale herse'f!" and Polly brought her own powdered, kinky locks forward to strengthen her appeal.

"'Tain' no use in yer talkin' dat foolishness ter me; yer know well 'nough I hates 'pocrisy anyway yer puts it, an' I ain' gwine ter pile flour ner nothin' else onto my hair fur to make b'lieve it's er stylish gray! I'd think yer'd be skeered yer'd wake up 'n de mo'nin' an' fin' ebry blessed stran' in yer head white as de driben snow, as a jedgment agin' yer fur tryin' to 'struct de Almighty in his wuk!"

"Lor, maw, how yer does talk!" giggled Polly. "But come he'p me git inter dis here worritin' frock; I'm plagued if 'tain' too short anyhow. You jes' take some pins an' pin it down"—as Aunt Susan came forward and began to adjust Miss Flora's garnet cashmere upon the gaunt form of her eldest hopeful. "Not too fur down now—you know it's got ter connec' wid de basque," continued Polly. Jane in the meantime had donned a soft blue tea-gown of Miss Flora's, and could be heard in the adjoining room handling such articles of jewelry as had been left upon that young lady's dressing-table.

Aunt Susan stepped hastily to the door just in time to see Miss Jane slip a very jingly set of bangles onto her sizable wrists and stick a silver comb very upright into the front of her marvelously gotten up hair.

"You Jane!" she thundered, "you o'nery critter! You jes' lef' 'lone dose jewelries! Ain' yer got no conshuns? I's lef' in charge ob dis here place, an' I feel worvy ob de trus', an' I ain' de one to see de fambly plate an' jewelries so much as teched by any one here present! Yo' take dat comb right outen yer head, an' dem spanglers offen' yer black wris's, an' don' yer lay de weight ob yer han' on nothin' in dis house 'thout 'axen me fus'!" and with a proud air of conscious virtue she glowered upon the offending Jane. The comb came down from its lofty perch and was put back upon the table, but the bangles were smuggled into the pocket of the blue tea-gown, to be replaced upon the insulted wrists at a later hour.

The ladies being now dressed, and Aunt Susan having added the key of Miss Flora's room to the already large bunch which weighed down her pocket and gave her a feeling of being the very worthy custodian of the family possessions, they descended to the large hall which ran the full depth of the house and had been settled upon as the best place in which to receive the guests.

Here they were met by Patrick Henry and George Washington, who (save the stiff, high collar which each wore, and Mr. Harry Van Arsdale's patent leather pumps, which George's necessities drove him to borrow) wore their own best "Sunday suits."

They were quite inspired with awe by the vision of beauty which burst upon them as the three ladies entered the hall.

"Now, mawmer," said Polly, who being parlor maid had witnessed her mistress' receptions, so now acted as sort of floor manager to the masquerading quintet, "yo' stan' near de do' an' hol' yer han's so—wid yer hank'chief atween 'em. Lor, maw! yer arms 's so short an' yerse'f so big dat yer han's wont connec' no nearer 'n der belt o' yer dress do—te-he-he-he! Jane, yo' stan' aside her an' laugh like Miss Flora do, no matter what de folks says. Patrick Henry an' I'll be at de dinin'-room do' to show 'em in."

"No yer won' nuther," burst forth from Aunt Susan, who at this point recovered her self-possession. "Yer'll bofe on yer stan' here aside me 'n Jane, an' I'll onlock dat dinin'-room do' myse'f at de right time! George Washington, yo stan' at de front do', an' hint to de fr'en's dat de nex'-do' folks is putty tattlin', so dey 'll come in more quiet like. Lan' sakes! dar's de bell now! It skeered me! Draw dat screen 'cross in fron' de do', so's all de worl' can't look in at us, an' don' yer open dat do' but jes' wide 'nough fur to let 'em in widout squeezin' 'em."

Mr. Latiny Lazarus and Miss Lavinia Speed were the first comers, and they received a warm welcome. While the lady was laying aside her wraps, Mr. Lazarus stood gazing about him in a kind of awe that finally found vent in the remark:

"Dis here house's mighty 'ceivin'. It looks sizable 'nough from de outside, but when yer gits in it de walls stretch a-w-a-y from yer, an' de ceilin's r-i-s-e above yer, till yer feel like er ant in er quart cup! It cert'nly air 'ceivin'!"

"Yes," giggled Jane, "dat's what yer fin's when yer hires here fur to sweep it!"

Miss Araminta Phœnix and Mr. Hiram Spinner came next.

"Walk right in! How's yer sister, Mis' Culver, Miss Araminta?" said Aunt Susan.

"She's poorly, thank God, Mis' Washington. What wid de wuk an' her drunk ole man an' all dem chilen, she's 'bout played out!"

"Has she got nice close fur dat new baby?"

"No, she ain' got none 't all, an' she say she ain' gwine ter git none nuther. She's done 'vided close fur nine chilen already an' she say she's sure dat's her share, so she's trus'in to de Lord to snatch dis one."

The bell interrupted them here, and quite a batch of guests arrived together. There was Miss Ardella Dangerfield with Mr. Lewis Weaver, Miss Jemima Lee and Mr. Silas Smackum, Miss Lucinda Cornish and Mr. Primas Tilghman, and many others, and then came the mammoth form—did I say form?—no; there was none there—the mammoth proportions of Mrs. Georgiana Waters, whom the "Bundy girls" had wickedly nicknamed the "Virginia creeper" because of the land of her birth and the slowness of her motions.

Charles Wormley, Daniel Edward Pugsley, and Jerry Douglas came together, and were declared by all to be "de grandes' lookin' gemmun in de room!" Polly turned up her flat little nose at the attentions of Daniel Edward, who was a "real gemmun's valit," preferring a certain stable boy, Simon Green by name; but Aunt Susan informed her in a severe aside that she "mought take a fine-tooth comb an' scrape de town from ind to ind, an' not fin' a better-to-do, quality-like young pusson dan Daniel Edward," so she dared not offend him.

The guests had all arrived excepting Elder Jones, whose advent they anxiously awaited before throwing open the dining-room doors, when the party was startled by a very decided and persistent knocking at the kitchen door. Who could it be? A sudden guilty terror fell upon the good people, and "silence like a poultice came to heal the blows of sound." For a few moments no one could summon courage to go and investigate the source of the knocking, which was repeated and grew louder; for "conscience oft makes cowards of us all," and there may have been a modicum of that article left in this festive throng. With widely distended eyes and chattering teeth Patrick Henry pronounced the magic word "Cops!" and Aunt Susan suddenly found the wrong side of the screen interesting. Mr. Tilghman noticed the gas was too high and lowered it, while George Washington decided that the air within was close and stepped out on the porch.

Mr. Latiny Lazarus, backed by Mrs. Mahala Reed and Miss Kezia Kinkles, finally won the admiration of the crowd by bravely marching, their lives (and the fire-irons) in their hands, to lay the ghost or slay the intruder, whichever it might prove to be.

Cautiously Mr. Lazarus opened the kitchen door a few inches, with a rough and threatening, "Who's dar?"

"It's me, de shepherd ob dis flock," a stern voice replied, and the door opened wide enough to admit a tall, thin, dark man with mournful eyes and a decidedly ministerial nose and mouth.

The trio within fell back a little, for, though they were exceedingly fond of their minister and had been anxiously awaiting his arrival, there was that in his face and voice now which froze the welcome on their lips. Without a word they led the way to the once more brilliant hall, where peace and happiness had been restored by the report of those who had been listening and peeping at the crack of the kitchen door.

The elder's "sheep" now flocked around him, and Aunt Susan hastily and triumphantly threw open the dining-room doors, while Mr. Columbus Smackum (spokesman elect) announced in stentorian tones: "De feas' is spread an' we only waits de leadin' ob our honored gues' an' parstor 'fore we perceeds to clean de boa'd."

"One minute, Broder Smackum," said Elder Jones, raising his hands benediction style to command silence. "As de shepherd ob dis flock, an' not as de honored gues', I am here dis night, an' I kin tell yer dat de bleatin' dat comes to my years soun's pow'ful mo' like de voice ob de goat dan ob de lamb! Befo' we goes inter dat lubly and temptin' table I wants all ob yer

here present what calls 'emse'ves stric'ly hones', an' is members in good standin' in Ebenezer Church, fur ter take dere stan' agin de souf wall—fardes from dat dinin'-room."

Like one man the righteous throng swung southward.

"I's glad, brederin an' sisters, if yer all b'longs dar on de souf side, an' in de sunshine ob de Lord's approval, rader dan on de norf side, whar de win' ob his wraf an' curse sweeps ober yer; but be resured, be resured, dat if any stan' dar er-callin' ob hisse'f hones', when de bran' ob de thief res' upon his soul, he is er-layin' up jedgment agin hisse'f in de las' day!"

The crowd swayed uneasily toward the center of the hall, but presently settled back against the south wall.

"'Pervide things hones' in de sight ob all men,' is what de Scriptur' teach us," continued the pastor. "Now look fru dem do's as yer stan' opposite"—every eye followed the direction of the long black finger as it pointed to the table—"each one on yer look straight at de donation what yer brung or sant, an' den look in yer own heart an' see if dat was 'pervided hones'' in de sight ob de pusson whose house it lef' 'fore it come here."

A faint murmur, almost a groan, was the only answer.

"Brederin an' sisters," resumed the elder, "dat food in dar, 'licious as it look an sabery as it smell, would stick in de froat ob any hones' pusson dat tried to swaller it, as de apple did in Adam's froat." (Visions of goiter-like deformities caused many of the fair hands present to seek the reassurance of touch.) "Better is a dinner ob yarbs, fr'en's, what's come by hones', dan de stalded ox what war hooked from his crib!" (Sounds of sobs and murmurs of "Lord! L-o-r-d!!" from the assembly.)

"Now in de words ob de good Book," continued Elder Jones, seeing signs of penitence in their great distress, "'be not cas' down,' fur, brederin, de Lord neber yet 'low a temptation fur to come to any man 'thout pervidin' a do' of 'scape; an' if de do' be narrer an' so low dat it scrape de skin offen yer as yer makes yer 'scape, who'se yer got ter thank fur makin' it nec'sary fur ter use it?" (Faint signs of approval from the few present who had not contributed to the feast.)

"Now here's de do' ob 'scape in dis temptation," resumed the pastor, mopping his shining brow with an enormous handkerchief. "Yer can each one 'store to de owner in de sight ob de Lord de victuals what yer fotch here, unteched as to tastin'!" (Loud sobs and groans.) "To resalt yer min's an' screw up yer courage we will all jine in singin' one verse ob 'Zion is a hard road to trabel,' an' den while Mr. Tobe Watkins gibs us a verse ob 'De debil's hard arter my soul' each penitent will 'sume dere wraps, an' geder from de dinin'-room whateber dey brung or sant, an' kerry it back to de place what dey fotch it frum.

"I ax nothin' onreason'ble, de Lord ax nothin' onreason'ble. He know our frame, he 'members we is dus'—coal-dus' when we ack dis here way," continued the faithful elder. "If it's beyon' yer 'strength ter 'fess yer fault ter yer missusses, jes' leabe yer t'ings at dere do's and ring de bells, an' when yer done it come wid clean han's an' pure hearts to my house on Goat Alley, an' he'p yerse'ves freely to de barrel ob apples an' de bushel ob ches'nuts what Uncle Adam an' Aunt Hannah Norris done pervided hones' in de sight ob all men—an' may de Lord be wid yer an' furgib yer!"

There were tearful murmurs of "Amen! Amen!" and brokenly the voices took up the strains of "Zion is a hard road to trabel."

As the last startling notes of "De debil's hard arter my soul" shot from the throat of Mr. Tobe Watkins, the door closed upon the bearer of almost the last dainty which had so lately crowned the Thanksgiving board.

The ladies of the house had already shrunk off weeping to the upper story and laid aside their borrowed finery, but were too far overcome with the contending emotions produced by the events of the evening to participate in the humble entertainment provided at their pastor's; so after that

brave black soldier of the cross had let himself out into the night air and gone to join his newly washed black sheep, the home party, with the addition of the three or four who had within the last hour grown proud of what had before looked like stinginess but had now become honesty, sat down to partake of the "fo' ole hens, couple ob cakes, an' doughnuts" which had not been "stole frum de missus, case dar warn't no missus dar to steal 'em frum."

Some of the robbed housekeepers of Greenville were amazed that night, when their bells were answered, to find at their front doors pitchers, pans, buckets, baskets, boxes, paper bags, in fact every conceivable sort of package containing miscellaneous goodies.

Courage did not sustain all of the "penitents" so far, however, the supply failing not a few just as they reached their own doors. It was therefore rather a slim and subdued little party that partook of apples and chestnuts at the parsonage in Goat Alley that Thanksgiving night; but Elder Jones did not feel discouraged, "fur," said he to Mr. Turtleback, "in all dese times of 'citement yer mus' spec' dar'll be some chaff in wid de wheat, which will natcherly sif' out, an' dis night we kin hol' Thanksgibin' ober de fac' dat we is got a leetle measure of de good grain anyhow!"

FEVER PANICS.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M.D.

A BIOGRAPHER of Harriet Martineau once met the witty reformer at a garden party where the conversation turned upon the merits of philosophers who had benefited the human race by the discovery of some great and unsuspected truth.

"Miss Martineau has immortalized herself by establishing an important principle of political economy," remarked the courteous host.

"Tried to establish a theory of my teacher, you mean," said the fair philanthropist, "but I did discover a truth worth ten like that—only it won't do to mention it without due precautions."

"I pledge myself for the discretion of all present."

"Well," said Miss Martineau, "if you will solemnly promise not to tell the projector of the Cooperative Home Society, my invaluable discovery is this: Mr. Nobody is always the best neighbor."

In cities convulsed with the panic of an epidemic disorder, a pamphlet setting forth the significance of that truth would, indeed, be worth its weight in hundred dollar bank-notes. Hundreds of fear-crazed families exhaust their resources by a headlong flight to the higher latitudes; hundreds of others fret themselves half to death and torture their bowels with prophylactic drugs; and the ownership or tenure of an isolated garden cottage might save all that trouble.

It is a mistake to suppose that the microbes of contagious diseases sail through the atmosphere like thistledown on a summer breeze; they are great colonizers and outbreed the English sparrows, but they are birds of short flight and rarely cross a river or penetrate a screen of clustering foliage.

The contagion of such diseases as yellow fever, influenza, and smallpox is communicated either directly by the breath or touch of infected individuals or indirectly by infected clothing or the atmosphere of stuffy rooms, cabins, or street-cars that have been occupied by persons in a far-developed stage of the disorder.

Standing in a market crowd, persons of deficient disease-resisting abilities may inhale the contagion in the open air; but in walking rapidly along a sidewalk or public promenade the risk is very small, and sinks almost to zero where the kindness of Miss Martineau's favorite neighbor enables a family to isolate themselves for a couple of weeks.

It is not necessary for that purpose to

procure a man-eating mastiff. Fictitious smallpox sign-boards are not in good taste either. Just ask your grocer to leave his sundries on the porch and permit you to settle his bills by mail. Discontinue your milkman if his sources of supply are not wholly above suspicion and there is typhoid in town. Fumigate your mail, and, above all, do not trust your linen to a wholesale laundry. There is no saying what sort of bundles may be soaked in the same vat with your underclothing, or how many microbes may survive the steaming process.

By good luck the panic may subside before the end of the summer vacation, but if it lasts into October or November, it may be a good plan to adopt the expedient of an association of suburban residents of Mobile, Ala., who sent their more noisy youngsters to a sort of coterie kindergarten and kept the young book-readers at home. In influenza (grippe) epidemics public schools often become veritable hotbeds of contagion, and ten to one the young lady in charge of the most suffocating classroom will shriek down every attempt to open a window.

Keep the children at home if there is no way to establish a neighborhood school, or treat them to an outing under the supervision of a guide sworn to keep them out of street-cars.

At country resorts they may happen to meet refugees from the centers of contagion, and for similar reason family flights to the highlands are apt to defeat their purpose. In warm weather an elevation of anything less than four thousand feet can offer no guaranty of salvation, and crowds of idlers, congregating on the veranda of a country hotel, will gossip to compensate the lack of better pastimes, at the risk of exchanging assortments of microbes as well as of anecdotes.

"Boarding-house keeping seems to pay pretty well in your country, doesn't it?" I asked the neighbor of a Florida hotel owner.

"Yes—lots of patronage," said the native, "but a good deal of the profit goes out for doctor bills. The old squire [the Boniface] has had sickness in his family ever since he began to keep boarders; first his wife, and now his sister and two daughters. The sick poison the air of a place where they hang about for weeks together. Their cook would have died if she hadn't left, and the old man wouldn't have weathered it so long if he didn't start out on a hunting trip every once in a while."

Railway cars, too, often become peripatetic hatcheries of contagious disorders. The air is liable to be reinfected at every station. In spite of all precautions the carpets get defiled with the *sputa* of consumptives. The cushions, curtains, and pillows are impregnated with the contagion of half a dozen different fevers.

In ill-ventilated bedrooms the case may be even worse. Reaching a hotel late at night, travelers may feel too tired to try half a hundred different rooms or range the city in quest of a sanitarium; they resign themselves to the inevitable when the night clerk assures them that he has given them the best of the only three or four vacant dormitories, and trying to let in the cool night wind they are apt to discover that their only window opens upon a dead wall, close enough to be touched with an umbrella. Fatigue makes them drowse away in a temperature of perhaps 90° Fahrenheit; and in that sleep of exhaustion what microbes may come? A well-ventilated attic in the homeliest suburb of their native town would have been unspeakably preferable.

"Don't get scared," is a rule more easily pronounced than observed; but a choice of the least dangerous alternative may persuade the veriest coward not to run away. In a fever panic the stay-at-home policy is out and out the safest plan, unless that home should happen to be surrounded with air and breeze-excluding tenements. And even in that case the sanitarily wise will not run further than the garden suburbs. Do not believe your real-estate agent that there isn't a vacant house within a day's journey of the post-office. Remember that a trip to the northern seaside resorts will involve a minimum expense of a hundred dollars, and try the effects of the tenth part of that sum in eliciting the desired information. Take an exploration trip in the cool of the morning

and offer a peddler or toll-gate keeper a few dollars to interview hucksters who range the highways and byways of the country, and see how soon the alleged difficulty will be reduced to an embarrassment of choice.

Vacant cottages will turn up where the hill foxes were supposed to have maintained a preemption right; one canvasser will return with the offers of house-owners wishing to leave town and ready to vacate for a moderate compensation, another with a list of deserted buildings that can be repaired at a trifling expense.

Your campaign fund may show an unappropriated balance sufficient to bribe a moving-van teamster to avoid sunstrokes by a peep-of-day trip, and like a rock-dweller watching storm-tossed vessels from a safe shelter, the suburb tenant may contemplate the storm and stress of the exodus from his harbor of refuge, and fortify his sanitary citadel with the permission of that estimable, unprejudiced neighbor, Mr. Nobody.

Where circumstances permit, a hilltop dwelling is preferable to a bottom-land rancho, and a cottage in a grove to a plantation house in a cotton-field. In epidemics raging from the mouth of the Ohio to the Florida everglades, forest cities like Savannah, Ga., have more than once enjoyed an immunity justifying the conclusion that tree-shade does not agree with fever microbes.

THE FRIENDLY LETTER.

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER.

THE very outside of a letter is stamped with the characteristics of the writer. The shape of the envelope, the quality of the paper, the arrangement of the superscription, and above all the handwriting, contribute toward the personality that breathes from it. It is a pleasant fashion to choose for one's friendly correspondence a special style of stationery, that may have for one's friends a personal association. Whims and fads in letter-paper rise and fall with other fancies, and there is occasionally a brief reign of scarlet or lavender in fantastic shapes, but it is only in a certain grade of novels that the impassioned lover presses to his lips the rose-tinted, perfumed letter of his lady, and wears it next his heart. To a healthily educated person a perfumed letter is an abomination, and a good quality of unruled, cream-white paper of such size as to fold once in the envelope is the only style that is sure of remaining always in good form. A violet sachet, with the faintest possible breath, laid in your writing-desk, to obviate any possible odor from the sizing of paper, may be allowable, but the satisfactory letter is, as Henry Ward Beecher said a woman should be, "as pure as a pearl and as odorless."

The monogram or other heading is a matter of individual taste, but must not be conspicuous, and once adopted should never be changed. A seal well formed is an elegant attachment, but it requires skill, and a shapeless blob of smoky wax cannot be considered decorative.

It seems to be pretty well settled that the date and writer's address must be put at the end of a note and not at the beginning, and at present Mrs. Grundy decrees that the day of the month must be written and not expressed in figures. But may we not insist that for the friendly as well as for the business letter the old fashion shall be upheld which taught that the first entry upon the sheet should be the date and writer's address, clearly written in the upper right-hand corner? It is often of the greatest importance to fix the exact date of a letter, and the habit of always beginning with date and address ought to be fixed beyond any possibility of forgetfulness.

Abbreviations are always out of place in a lady's letter, and their use is a mark of discourtesy. Underscoring, except as a mechanical direction to the printer, is also in bad taste. A letter should not talk in italics, and a smooth easy manner which as-

sumes that your friend has sufficient intelligence to perceive the wit of a *bon mot* is more complimentary than perpetual guide boards.

Can any one say why a letter should not read in a straightforward fashion, page after page, from beginning to end, as a book does? Why must the reader leap a chasm from the first page to the last, or to some other landing-place, according to the whim of the writer, and be compelled to guess the connection by fitting the sentences like a Chinese puzzle? The pleasure of reading depends upon the ease with which one follows the thought, and the necessity for any effort mars the enjoyment and the sense of personal communication. This being so, the handwriting is of prime importance. Nothing can be more exasperating than an indistinct, illegible letter, along whose highways one must toil and struggle, never quite sure of being on the right track or of having arrived at the proper destination. There is absolutely no excuse for inflicting such discomfort on one's friends, and it is far better to take refuge in the characterless productions of the typewriter than to put friendship to such a strain.

The story has been told that Vanderbilt once dismissed an officer for gross misconduct and dishonesty, but the only legible part of the document being the signature, the man used it for years as a free pass on the railroads. Another case I have personally known: A letter containing quite full business details was received by a man in a small community in western New York. He managed to decipher the body of the letter with some approach to assurance, but a much-underscored postscript defied his interpretation, assisted by the united wisdom of all his neighbors. The conundrum was finally submitted to a young lady visiting at the place and reputed to be skilled in tongues, who immediately translated it: "P. S. Be sure you keep this matter a profound secret." The writer had only received his just deserts in having his secret put at the mercy of a whole neighborhood.

This reminds me to say a word for the much-abused postscript. There is sometimes method in its madness, since its little speech makes a far deeper impression than if buried in the body of the letter. I know an admirable correspondent who deliberately saves delightful little tid-bits of news and wit to insert here and there in the margins of her letters. It is like the toothsome confection after dinner, the unexpected treasure-trove, and by no means to be indiscriminately condemned, or mentioned in the same calendar with the unpardonable offense of crossing the lines in a letter, as people have even been known to do on penny postal cards. It ought, by the way, to go without saying that nothing but the most impersonal of business communications may be entrusted to a postal card, neither, if you wish to adhere to good form, may you use stamped envelopes for your friends.

A few prime injunctions in reference to correspondence may well be borne in mind by us all. Do not have too many confidential correspondents. The spoken word has often caused bitter regret; how much more the enduring record. Be loyal to the confidences of other people. Accustom yourself to promptness in writing. Young people should be taught that it is as rude to neglect a letter as to fail to respond to direct address. Letters of sympathy, letters of congratulation, letters of courtesy after visits, seem to many people little, unimportant matters, to be attended to or not as convenience may dictate, not requirements of good breeding that may by no means be ignored.

"Do you think she is much of a lady?" asks the girl in one of Miss Chester's books.

"My dear," replies the old-fashioned grandmother, "one is either a lady or she is not a lady."

If the innate qualities of courtesy, refinement, and deference to others be present in the character they will find expression in little things, and ignorance of established form will never make their owner offensive. But neither will she pass over as of small importance the minor details of association with others which make human intercourse pleasant and profitable.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

IMPROVEMENT IN BUSINESS.

THE business situation has been improving for about three months. (1) There is greater activity; it is proved by an increase of bank clearances in the principal cities, an increase over last year ranging from forty to fifty per cent. For the third week of September it was fifty-two per cent over the same period in '96. (2) There has been a slight gain in price, estimated at from four to twelve per cent by different statisticians. In farm products the all-round gain is perhaps fifteen per cent. The mills have been content to take low prices, asking only a market. This is noticeable in iron and steel, immense quantities having been sold for future delivery at low prices. An advance in these lines came late and only after the capacity for production for months ahead had been covered by contracts. (3) Confidence in the stability of the favorable business conditions has become general. (4) The railroads show steady gains in earnings and some of them are hard pressed to do the business offered them. (5) The excess of exports over imports at our ocean ports were more than doubled in August as compared with August, 1896, rising to more than forty millions in value. (6) More men are employed; the New York trades unions report an increase of thirty-four per cent over last year. To these favorable signs may be added the resumption of work in bituminous coal mines and an increase in the wages of the men. In the extreme South yellow fever quarantines obstruct business, but it is noticed that New Orleans bank clearances fell off but ten per cent in the fourth week of September.

(Rep.) The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

And please bear in mind that all this has come without a jot of change in the money standard; has come in spite of the determined efforts of the calamitists to prevent its arrival.

(Dem.) The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

The good times may be a little slow in getting around, but they are bound to come to the wage-earner as well as to other classes.

(Ind.) The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Prices would surely advance more rapidly under free copper than under free silver, and a wampum currency, if Mr. Bryan is correct, would lead to the millennium.

(Rep.) The Tribune. (Salt Lake City, Utah.)

If the present signs do not fail, mining in Utah this winter ought to be better than it has been for five years past. Lead is not liable to fall, for farmers have made a little money and they will paint their houses. And the gold mines of Utah will be in strong evidence by the beginning of the year, which will be a factor that did not much count five years ago. The Dingley Bill will give the sheepmen about $1,000,000 over last year's returns. Utah ought to be doing pretty well.

(Dem.) Denver Republican. (Col.)

The farmers are probably doing better than any other class of producers, because the rise in value of their principal crops has put money into their pockets at an unprecedented rate, but the benefits they enjoy will be quickly and widely distributed.

(Rep.) The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Every week brings additional evidences of the rising tide of prosperity. Business is increasing in volume, we are now assured of our large harvests, the railroads are crowded with traffic, our exports are swelling, and confidence is fast returning.

(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

There is not a sign of reaction anywhere, and, with the coal strike settled, the business activity should last all through the winter months, the most trying period of the year, when labor is unemployed.

(Dem.) The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

We think the results of the recent rise will be sufficient to convince sensible men of the good effects of an increase of prices—in other words, the cheapening of the dollar.

(Ind.) The Chicago Evening Post. (Ill.)

The streets of Chicago are daily thronged with visitors and buyers, all indicative of a return to those conditions that preceded the World's Fair year. In fact, there is as much bustle and crowding in the streets to-day as there was in 1893.

(Rep.) The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

There is abundant evidence on every hand that all classes of the people, including wealth-producers of every description, are sharing in the new prosperity. The failure of the foreign wheat crop could not start hundreds of idle shops and factories to operating and give employment to hundreds of thousands of idle workingmen. The failure of the foreign wheat crop would not suffice to stimulate all lines of business and produce a feeling of confidence and security among investors and merchants throughout the country.

* This department, together with the book "The Social Spirit in America," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

THE GRECO-TURKISH TREATY RATIFIED.

THE peace preliminaries, after fifteen weeks' delay, have been signed at Constantinople. The Greeks will not have to cede their fleet to Turkey; the indemnity is much smaller than Turkey demanded; the new frontier gives Turkey all the mountain passes; Thessaly is to be evacuated by the troops of the sultan within a month after the treaty goes into effect; a syndicate is to take charge of Greek finances to secure the payment of the indemnity and debts due to German bondholders are included in this arrangement. The indemnity is four million pounds sterling, eighteen million dollars. The sultan had asked for fifty million dollars. The terms are bitterly denounced in Athens, and on September 30 the Grecian Boule (legislative assembly) defeated a resolution of confidence in the government by a vote of ninety-three to thirty. This caused the resignation of M. Ralli's cabinet the following day. M. Zaimis, former president of the Chamber of Deputies, has formed a new cabinet.

GEORGE I.
King of Greece.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

The terms of the treaty by which Turkey agrees to get out of Greece are so irksome that the Greeks are justified in doing some tall protesting, but they are not in a position to renew the war. The unmerciful drubbing they received from the Turks should have taught them a lesson not soon to be forgotten.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The sultan can be depended upon not to withdraw his troops from Thessaly except by the employment of force. The treaty will practically result in the wiping of Greece off the map. By his weak consent to this abominable arrangement Lord Salisbury has forfeited even the small remnant of his reputation for virile and courageous statesmanship.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Greece thus pays heavily for the rash gallantry with which she took up the cause of Crete.

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Greece sinks to the level of Egypt, except that she is not under the control of one foreign government, but of many—perhaps an inferior position.

The Kennebec Journal. (Augusta, Me.)

[The sultan] insisted on remaining in occupation of Thessaly; he has been allowed to hold every vantage-point on its northern border, so that for offensive purposes against Greece he is practically as well situated as though his army were encamped on the plain below.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

It is, apparently, the restless, turbulent, and irresponsible element of the population—in other words, the mob—in Greece that is protesting against the terms of the peace treaty and urging that the war

ABDUL HAMID II.
Sultan of Turkey.

shall be renewed. The newspapers of the better class are peaceful in tone, and the government gives no sign of yielding to the popular clamor.

THE MINERS' STRIKE ENDED.

THE miners' convention at Columbus, Ohio, September 10, agreed to resume work at 65 cents a ton, as proposed by their National Executive Committee. Since that date work has been gradually resumed all over the bituminous field. The miners had asked 69 cents, having received 59 up to the strike July 4. They secured an increase of 6 cents a ton and this is a victory, but it has cost the men two months of unpaid idleness and seriously damaged coal consumers. In a few localities agreements have not yet been reached between miners and operators, the trouble arising over differentials for groups of miners. The rate of 65 cents is for Pittsburg; it is more or less than that in the other sections according to the labor required

to mine a tone of coal in the varying conditions. The solution is difficult in some states; for example in Illinois, where conditions vary widely and rates must be based on disputed facts. Estimates have been made of the losses caused by this coal strike, but the amount is unknown, though it certainly is many millions of dollars. A terrible event occurred at Lattimer, in Luzerne Co., Pa., on the afternoon of the 10th of September, outside of the sphere of the general strike. For reasons not plainly known, many Hungarian and Polish miners had struck, and on that day a crowd of the strikers, marching toward some mines where men were still at work, refused to desist at the order of the sheriff commanding some ninety armed deputies. They were fired upon and twenty-two were killed or mortally wounded and sixty others received more or less serious wounds. The exact facts will be ascertained by legal proceedings, the sheriff and seventy-seven of his deputies having been regularly held for trial. Governor Hastings of Pennsylvania promptly sent state troops to the scene of the disturbance. No further trouble occurred, and on the 18th the troops were withdrawn, the miners having resumed work. It is alleged that the Austrian government will demand compensation for the families of Hungarians who were killed at Lattimer, if the Pennsylvania courts shall decide that the shooting was criminal.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The *Pittsburg Times* estimates that the strike in that district has involved a loss to the miners during the eight weeks of its continuance of $2,500,000, and that altogether it has cost the people of the Pittsburg district—coal miners, operators, and the whole commercial world interested—not less than $5,000,000 to $7,000,000. It is too soon to fully measure the cost of the strike in the middle coal field, though its terrible cost in human life has been very nearly summed up; but if to the loss of wages be added the trade losses, the destruction of property, and the pay of the deputies and militia it will be seen that the total cost of mining strikes in this state since midsummer will foot up to the proportions of a great catastrophe.

The Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)

The mine owners who have lowered the level of all labor by employing the cheapest form of labor that they could import are primarily responsible for the conditions that underlie and make possible such affairs as that of the recent shooting.

Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

One of the results of the recent miners' strike in many localities, notably the Pittsburg district, is that hundreds of miners have gone away and secured employment in other lines of work. So marked has been the exodus that in some places there are barely sufficient men to fill the mines, and those who remain have more continuous employment than ever before.

Baltimore Sun. (Md.)

The courts have the right, doubtless, to enjoin strikers from interfering with the business operations of their employers and to prohibit demonstrations near their property which may be calculated to interfere with such operations, but when judges are called on to say that strikers shall not march on the people's highways from one point to another, they approach principles which go down to the very foundations of free government.

The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

It would be better for Pennsylvania if she had now working in her coal mines the intelligent Americans who once were employed there. The wise policy is for employers to hold on to the good rather than for the sake of some temporary lowering of wages to substitute a class not in sympathy with the country nor capable of understanding its institutions.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The shameless newspapers of sensation and anarchy will persist in glorifying riot, in making heroes of the mob, and in inciting the ignorant to violence, and thus luring them on to death. The foolish or weakly sentimental journals will continue to perform their part of the deadly work until a healthy public sentiment makes itself heard concerning their criminal participation.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The lesson thus written in blood should be heeded everywhere. The laws of the land must be enforced and they will be enforced by extreme measures when necessary. This latter proposition cannot be too much emphasized. There may have been a blunder in this particular case, but the common error of the civil authorities has been too much laxity, not to say timidity, at such crises. It was time we had an example of more rigorous execution of the law.

The Commercial Appeal. (Memphis, Tenn.)

The manhood and sense of justice of the American people should rise up and demand that a halt be called to this bloody work, in this hellish carnage. It has become intolerable.

The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

The only way to compel respect for law is to punish everybody who violates it, whether the offender be a rioter or a sheriff clothed with the law's authority.

The Kansas Capital. (Topeka.)

The force under the direction of the sheriff was composed not of irresponsible ruffians, or hired detectives, but of patriotic and responsible men who in their capacity as citizens volunteered to risk their lives in the cause of law and order, and the protection of property. . . . A fatal blunder was made by the deputies when they opened fire before this final resort became at all necessary. No order, apparently, was given by the sheriff. No striker

claims that such an order was given, and three witnesses not connected with either side agree that no order could be heard.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Sixty-one thousand immigrants settled in Pennsylvania alone for the fiscal year ending June 30 last. Nearly all of these immigrants came from Italy, Austria, Lithuania, and Russia. For the most part they were absolutely ignorant of our institutions, and were unable to read and write even their own languages. In all the recent strikes in the coal and coke regions turbulence has been fostered by just such people.

The Irish World. (New York, N. Y.)

While pitying the victims, we cannot but feel indignant that human life should be held so cheaply by those who are masquerading as the defenders of law and order. No unbiased persons can read the published accounts of these murders—we use this word advisedly—without coming to the conclusion that not a drop of blood would have been shed if the sheriff and his deputies had been brave men instead of being veritable cowards.

San Francisco Chronicle. (Cal.)

It displays a criminal lack of judgment on the part of our alleged statesmen to permit the country to be flooded with the class of laborers who find employment in the coal mines, when the field is so overcrowded that wages have actually been forced below the limit of decent subsistence.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

It may be fairly doubted whether a shot would have been fired by the deputies at Lattimer had the column of marching strikers been composed of Americans or Welsh or Irish, or had those three nationalities furnished the majority. It is the worst exhibition of race hatred and diabolical fury of an armed force, vented on an unarmed procession, that ever occurred in our country.

ATTEMPT TO ASSASSINATE PRESIDENT DIAZ.

IN the forenoon of September 16 a Mexican named Arroyo assaulted President Diaz while the latter was standing and conversing with his secretary of war in a Moorish pavilion in the City of Mexico. A few hours later Arroyo was murdered by a mob, with the guilty participation of police guards having the prisoner in charge. The guilty officers were promptly deposed and imprisoned, and measures were taken to arrest and punish all who took part in the lynching. The assault on President Diaz gave occasion for a passionate outburst of national feeling in honor of this great leader and statesman. The president's message to the Mexican congress states that the country is constantly growing richer and that government revenues are increasing, but adds that the decline and fluctuations in the price of silver are demanding the serious attention of the country, and have caused the administration to adopt measures of prudence in expenditures.

PRES. PORFIRIO DIAZ, OF MEXICO.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The episode throws a keen light on the methods of General Diaz and on his position in Mexico. It always has been a matter of wonder that he should be able to hold in check the hot-headed people of Mexico, and while maintaining the appearance of a constitutional government rule as absolutely as the czar of Russia. Here we have the secret—the personal loyalty of his followers and his own rigid, even fierce, insistence on justice.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

It would be well for Mexico if Ponce de Leon had discovered the fountain of eternal youth that Diaz might drink there and renew his strength from year to year.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

President Diaz may be styled a practical dictator; it may be said that he has used every legitimate means to perpetuate himself in office, and yet it must be admitted, even by his opponents, that he possesses the qualities of honesty and patriotism, that he is a man of broad intellectual views, that he loves his country, and that under his administration it has reached a height of prosperity such as few ever dreamed of.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

It was Mexico's first experience of lynch law, and President Diaz is resolved to make a stern example of the lynchers. For the credit of Mexico this is well.

THE SEAL CONFERENCE.

AMERICAN, English, and Russian experts in seal life have spent the summer on the seal islands of the North Pacific investigating the facts respecting the diminution of the herds by pelagic sealing. They will meet in Washington in October and it was expected that representatives of England, the United States, Russia, and Japan would meet with the experts, hear the reports, and discuss means of settling the controversy, but on account of Canadian protests England has declined to meet with Russian and Japanese commissioners, and a separate conference of United States and English representatives may be held. The conference will have no power to bind the several powers by any decision.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

All the seals in the Pacific Ocean are not worth the abandonment of the principle of the freedom of the high seas beyond the three-mile limit—a principle that should be dear to every American, since the acknowledgment thereof was wrung from the greatest maritime power in the world by the naval heroes of our young republic.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

And now at this late date, when the delegates to the conference are actually on their way to the place of meeting, the British government announces that it will not enter the conference with Russia and Japan. That means, of course, that it will not enter this conference at all, since it is manifestly out of the question for the United States now to exclude those two powers.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

This generation has about given up hope of seeing the Bering Sea troubles settled amicably or in any other way, unless the poachers settle it themselves by killing off the seals.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The Paris rules provide for their revision in five years, and the time is up next year. Lord Salisbury has been fighting all along to get the use of this full period for the Canadians, and where three countries are to be dealt with there may be not only more chance of conflicting interests, but more slowness in reaching conclusions.

YELLOW FEVER IN THE SOUTH.

ON September 6 a case of yellow fever at Ocean Springs, Miss., was announced. Two days later cases were reported at Mobile, Ala., and by the 10th the disease appeared in New Orleans, Jackson, Miss., and a few smaller cities. The origin of the infection is uncertain. It appeared in connection with an epidemic of dengue and at first was with difficulty distinguished from dengue. The mortality resulting from the fever is very low, hardly exceeding ten per cent, and the guess has been hazarded that a new disease has been developed from dengue. The disease is nowhere epidemic and the most careful measures have been taken to control it. For example, 40,000 persons have been enrolled in a sanitary corps at New Orleans. Many persons have left the infected districts and business and travel have been seriously hindered.

DR. GUITERAS.
The Government Yellow Fever Expert Sent to Infected Districts.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The origin of the new epidemic seems as obscure as its first manifestations were misleading and deceptive. By some authorities on the spot the appearance of the fever is attributed to the consumption of oysters which have fed on sewage pollution. By others the even vaguer theory is broached that the plague was carried over from Havana by certain mysterious Cuban visitors. Whatever the source of the disease, its progress has been marked so far by a singular lack of virulence.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

The character and extent of the quarantine regulations established by the authorities of Alabama demonstrate a condition of hysteria hitherto unparalleled in the South, and is resulting in tremendous losses in business and trade to the whole South. No epidemic that has ever visited the southern country has brought about such a paralysis in commerce.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

The maintenance of a shot-gun quarantine might in the case of some epidemics be condemned as

useless. But it is not so in the South at the present time. The germs of yellow fever are so far destroyed by frost that the appearance of a killing frost is almost certain to put an end to an epidemic. Every day that the disease is kept out of a community by quarantine is, therefore, that much gained.

The Kennebec Journal. (Augusta, Me.)

There seems no good reason to anticipate a long continuance of the epidemic, though it is probable that it will seriously interfere with the exceptionally prosperous condition of business in the South. Indeed it has done so already and nothing short of a frost will speedily restore a normal tone.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

A study of the former ravages of the fever will show that the present disorder on the gulf coast is barely worthy to be classed as an epidemic of a once terrifying and really terrible malady.

The Evening Star. (Washington, D. C.)

The fever has spread to places that were at first apparently secure, but there is no reason for widespread alarm, for, except in the extreme South, along the gulf coast, the killing frost is soon due, and this advent will mark the end of the scourge. The only danger lies in the possibility that the panic now incipient in New Orleans may develop beyond control, causing a stampede from the city, thus scattering the germs far and wide and giving the fever the character of a general epidemic, however brief may be its life in the northern sections.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

The fact that the disease appears to be spreading, despite the heroic efforts made to confine it, indicates that there is more yellow fever than the southern newspapers are willing to admit.

The Times-Democrat. (New Orleans, La.)

Throughout the South more sanitary work is being done now than ever before.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

New Orleans has voted $25,000 to put the city in good sanitary condition. Another case of cleaning up after Yellow Jack succeeds in gaining a foothold. New Orleans could have been as clean a year ago as it is now, and could have bid defiance to yellow fever.

Times-Union. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Has not damage enough been done, including loss of life, the interruption of business, the disruption of trade relations, and the hysterical terror of whole communities, to warrant the public in demanding that means be put into the hands of science and experience to protect us against these evils in the years to come?

THE BANK OF ENGLAND AND SILVER.

ON September 16 the governor of the Bank of England announced that the directors of that institution were giving favorable consideration to the proposition of the United States commissioners that the bank should agree to avail itself of its charter right to hold one fifth of its reserve in silver. On September 15 the governor explained that certain important conditions were to be exacted and that only the principle of such a course had been considered. The conditions of most importance were that France should open her mints to the free coinage of silver and that the price of silver should from time to time be satisfactory. The proposition was received with indignation by the English press and the financial community.

St. James's Gazette. (London, Eng.)

The scheme seems to be knocked on the head for the present, but the reception of even this feeble announcement in the city will have an effect anything but favorable to the bimetalists. A substantial element of indignation arises at the feeling that the government and the bank have been doing a little diplomacy at our expense and for the advantage of Americans. The United States has done nothing to make such a risky politeness to the silver men on our part popular in this country.

The Times. (London, Eng.)

We cannot assume that the admission of a silver reserve would not detract from the bank's prestige abroad. It would be a very objectionable course, and not at all justified by the negotiations of the ministry with the American commissioners and the French government.

The New York Herald. (N. Y.)

The care with which this action was kept secret by the bank officials indicates that they knew it would be condemned by public opinion. If, however, they entertained any lingering doubts on that subject, these must be emphatically set at rest by the outburst of condemnation elicited by the discovery that they had been coquetting with the question.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

If the French mint is open to free coinage, all the bank has to do when it needs gold is to ship its silver to Paris, have it coined into five-franc pieces, and pay whatever debts are due from British merchants to French merchants in that way, or exchange them for gold to ship to London. In this way a very handsome profit can be made.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

The main objection from a banking point of view must be that the silver thus held would be of no value in meeting liabilities, but would be only a paper asset like the silver that is held in the treasury of the United States.

THE NEW YORK MAYORALTY.

SETH LOW.

FOUR candidates for the first mayor of Greater New York have been put in nomination for the election on November 2. First in time is Seth Low, ex-mayor of Brooklyn and now president of Columbia University. He was named September 2 by a committee of the Citizens' Union claiming to represent 127,000 petitioners. The united Democracy nominated Henry George, author of "Progress and Poverty," October 1, the Republicans on September 28 nominated Gen. B. F. Tracy, ex-secretary of the navy, and the regular or Tammany Democracy on September 30 nominated Judge R. A. Van Wyck. Two of these gentlemen are Republicans, Low and Tracy; two are Democrats, George and Van Wyck. Mr. Low represents non-partisanship in city administration; Tracy national republicanism as set forth in the platform of 1896. Van Wyck represents the regular party organization of the Democracy, though the convention which nominated him was silent on national questions. George stands upon the national platform adopted by the Democrats last year. Sympathetic relations exist between the friends of George and Tracy; each represents national ideas. As much may be said of Low and Van Wyck; each represents, though in a totally unlike way, local self-government. The result is uncertain. There are not far from an equal number of Republicans and Democrats in the new municipality. But it is not known how the candidacy of George and Low will affect their respective parties, and the result probably depends upon combinations which will be made hereafter. The Republicans have bid for the votes of the Gold Democrats by nominating Mr. Ashbel P. Fitch, a Gold Democrat, for the office of controller, and the Tammany Democrats have a supporter of Mr. Bryan in Judge Van Wyck, their candidate for mayor.

GEN. BENJAMIN F. TRACY.

HENRY GEORGE.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

All that remains is for General Tracy to carry out the intention expressed at the time of his nomination, and retire, to bring about a certain victory of the people anxious for good government over those bent on reestablishing the rule of corruption.

(Ind.) The Irish World. (New York, N. Y.)

In nominating General Tracy for the mayoralty of Greater New York the Republican party has at one and the same time refused to submit to Mugwump

ROBERT A. VAN WYCK.

dictation and has presented to the voters a candidate whose career in the past is a guaranty that he

will worthily fill the office of mayor of the second greatest municipality of the world if his fellow citizens honor him with this important trust.

(Ind.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

That is to be the fight of next month—a fight for civilization under Republican leadership and a fight against civilization by the congregated hordes of Bryanism. . . . . Van Wyck and Low are the toys of the campaign. The fight for principles is between General Tracy and Henry George.

(Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Only with Mr. Low can Tammany be defeated, and every Republican vote diverted from Low is a vote to elect Robert A. Van Wyck.

(Dem.) The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

Confronted by many embarrassments, the Democracy of the enlarged metropolis has done its best, and the ticket it has selected and the excellent platform adopted are likely to commend themselves increasingly as the canvass grows older and the issues come to be more clearly defined.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

As the only candidate in the field representing the cause of good government, regardless of factions or "pulls," he [Seth Low] is bound to get the votes of most of the Democrats who refused to support Bryan in New York last year.

(Rep.) The Burlington Hawk-Eye. (Ia.)

It is to be pitied that the union of all the better classes in New York, which was so universally desired and would have been the surest means to secure good government for the consolidated city, could not be effected and that the Republican party has been compelled to take independent action. But under the circumstances it strikes the observer at this distance that the nomination of Mr. Tracy was about the wisest thing the party could have done.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The election of either the Republican or the Democratic candidate will mean a partisan administration of municipal affairs. The success of Seth Low will mean a great triumph for civic reform.

(Dem.) The Journal. (Atlanta, Ga.)

Seth Low is a millionaire, a philanthropist, and an educator of high rank, but he is out of line with many Republicans on the tariff, and has incurred the personal enmity of the leaders. He will undoubtedly secure the full Independent vote, but this is only powerful when added to the vote of one or the other of the party organizations.

FAMINE IN IRELAND.

A GENERAL failure of crops and especially a very short crop of potatoes has again brought some portions of the Irish people to the verge of famine. September 22 the Irish leaders sent a memorial to Mr. Arthur Balfour requesting that Parliament be summoned to meet immediately to provide money for the relief of large districts where the potato crop has failed and grain has been spoiled by excessive rains. The prospects for the farmers have not been so bad in these districts since the great famine year, 1847.

The Daily News. (London, Eng.)

The boom in wheat is not a matter for rejoicing in Ireland; it only helps to give a deeper tinge of darkness to a picture that is already sufficiently black. Rates are in many instances in arrears and practically irrecoverable. To attempt to collect them would in not a few cases reduce the unfortunate taxpayers to the same position as the paupers for whose support they are taxed.

Dublin Express. (Ireland.)

Judging from the past we hope that much of the crops doomed to destruction by the prophets of evil will be rescued, and that the general yield will be much larger than expected.

The Dublin Independent. (Ireland.)

If the country was ten times as badly off as it is likely to be, it would resent any charitable appeal to the English.

Cincinnati Commercial Gazette. (O.)

If again the United States is called upon, again will she open her heart and her purse to keep from starvation the fathers and mothers of thousands of our best naturalized citizens. Many of the Irish who for years have worked and prospered in this new western home will be able to take the lead in the charity.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Ireland has in the last dozen years become far less a country of one crop than she used to be, and potato-rot is not the word of terror and despair that it was, even in 1880. A hopeful feature of the case, too, is that the undoubted industrial revival of recent years in Ireland has made the people far better able than hitherto to help themselves through any slight and temporary trouble. Attention has recently been called to this revival and the consequent improvement in the condition of the people.

The Irish World. (New York, N. Y.)

"Rents must be paid." The demands of the landlords must be met, no matter whether the seasons are favorable or unfavorable, no matter whether the agricultural yield is good or bad. Hence there is frequently presented in Ireland the strange anomaly of people starving while the country produces more food than is sufficient for the whole population.

SPAIN AND CUBA.

GEN. STEWART L. WOODFORD.
United States Minister to Spain.

THE war news of the month is not of importance. United States Minister Woodford has been received by the Spanish premier (who has since resigned); General Lee will return, after a brief absence, to Havana, at the request of President McKinley; and the Conservative ministry at Madrid has retired in favor of a Liberal ministry headed by Señor Sagasta. The policy of the new cabinet is to pacificate Cuba by withdrawing Captain-General Weyler and offering the Cubans the largest possible measure of self-government. The Cuban junta in New York declares that the insurgents have already won their independence and will accept nothing less. It is understood that through General Woodford President McKinley has urged Spain to make a speedy end of the conditions in Cuba which seriously damage United States interests, and has offered the good offices of this country to aid in making peace. The French minister at Washington, M. Patenotre, has been transferred to Madrid and this change is supposed to indicate that France is giving a moral support to Spain in the negotiations with this country. It is also probable that Spain would have the moral support of Austria in case of trouble.

SEÑOR SAGASTA.
Spain's New Premier.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

Later accounts of the interview between Minister Woodford and the duke of Tetuan make it quite certain that the message conveyed by this government to the government of Spain contained nothing that could be construed to be an ultimatum, or even a penultimatum.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

It is the general desire that the cruel war in Cuba shall be ended, that the interests of this country shall be protected, and that, if ultimately necessary, Uncle Sam shall interpose his strong arm; but only the jingoes have any desire to see positive intervention until every resource of friendly and dignified mediation shall have been exhausted.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

General Weyler, evidently with the fear of removal before his eyes, has assured the Spanish government that he is perfectly confident of being able to pacify Cuba in four months. This looks like a play for more time on the part of Weyler. He is, according to reports, enriching himself out of the spoils of Cuba.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

If the United States is going into this matter it must do so in a way that will keep its honor clear and leave no ground for the suspicion that the desire to acquire Cuba is the inspiring motive. Autonomy for Cuba should be the limit of its demand. . . . Fears of a Carlist uprising in Spain are not very well founded.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

All talk about the interference of Austria, Germany, and other leading European powers between the United States and Spain in the event of a war on account of Cuba may be set down as of no value. The powers referred to have enough business of their own to attend to.

Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

The only step the president has taken in the Cuban matter has been to request Consul-General Lee to continue his position. That is one good point in the administration which the *Enquirer* feels bound to concede.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

A short war between two naval powers is not necessarily destructive of much life or property and it would certainly be better for humanity than the slow butchery of the unfortunate people on the island so close to our territory.

The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

Just why the rainy season should have stopped the fighting in Cuba it is not easy to understand. Surely Weyler cannot have been so heedless as to neglect to provide umbrellas and mackintoshes for his typewriter girls.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Spain seeks no quarrel with the United States. Indeed her course since the new administration came in has been distinctly conciliatory.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

As Madrid officials are concerned, there is some sentimental foundation for the notion that the Hapsburg kaiser might be strongly impelled to aid the queen regent Christina, who is an Austrian archduchess, should the stability of her son's throne be threatened.

The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

Each of the larger powers in Europe is so jealous of some other that it dare not become the ally of Spain.

SECTION TWENTY-TWO OF THE TARIFF.

ATTORNEY-GENERAL MCKENNA issued September 20 an opinion—which until the courts construe the section will have the force of law—that section 22 of the new tariff does not impose the discriminating duty of ten per cent on goods coming in through Canada and Mexico. The attorney-general decided that section 22 of the tariff act must be construed along with section 4,228 of the Revised Statutes; and it happens that Congress on the same day it finally enacted the tariff passed a bill amending section 4,228 but not removing those provisions which conflict with the new tariff. The law officer of the cabinet therefore decides that Congress did not intend to levy this particular discriminating duty.

(Dem.) The World. (New York, N. Y.)

Section 22 was "slipped" into the tariff bill, as Speaker Reed has told us. That is to say, Congress never meant to enact any such a thing, but it did enact it, thanks to the activity and ingenuity of a slippery slipper or slippers in the employ of the Pacific Railroad "combine." Now Attorney-General McKenna has slipped it out. He rules that the section has no validity, or, more accurately speaking, that it does not mean what it says or anything else. This makes an end of section 22, and that is well.

(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

This much-discussed clause of the Dingley Tariff Bill has been explained in a very confusing way by the attorney-general. It appears to be plain enough to the lay reader, as it was intended to put a check upon importations through Canada into the United States to the disadvantage of American railroads competing with government-aided railroads of Canada. . . . . The attorney-general says that Congress did not intend to do this; Congress should answer him in December by reenacting clause 22 in language which cannot be misunderstood. There are votes enough to do it without those of New England senators and representatives.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

A change so important in its bearing on the commercial relations of this with other countries should not rest upon any questionable interpretation of an act of Congress.

(Dem.) The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

The interests back of the sneak amendment are so powerful that we can hardly expect that the opinion of the attorney-general will settle the matter finally.

(Rep.) The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

The effect of the opinion is to construe a good American law against American interests. It is hoped the next Congress will recognize the fact that American shipping is entitled to protection as well as other American industries.

THE PEARY AND ANDREE EXPEDITIONS.

ON September 24 several members of the Peary arctic expedition arrived in New York. This expedition was a preliminary voyage undertaken to prepare for Lieutenant Peary's five years' search for the north pole to be begun next summer. It is understood that the voyage was successful. The vessel, the *Hope*, brought back the Cape York meteorite, eleven feet six inches long, four feet thick, and six feet high, approximately, and weighing about a hundred tons. The plan for next year is to sail as far north as possible and then to use Eskimos and dogs in sledging to the pole. The American Geographical Society has assured $150,000 to meet all expenses and Lieutenant Peary has received five years' leave of absence. The fate of Professor Andree, who started from the island of Tromsoe in a balloon in search of the pole on July 11, remains unknown. Alleged pigeon despatches from him dated the 12th and 13th of July are both credited and discredited among scientists.

The Journal. (Kansas City, Mo.)

Lieutenant Peary declares he will find the north pole or die. Every other person can truthfully say the same. Man is mortal.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Lieutenant Peary's report from Cape Breton indicates that his seventh pilgrimage to northern Greenland has resulted in appreciable progress toward the

forwarding of his plan to reach the pole by a series of advances through a chain of bases of supplies to

LIEUT. ROBERT E. PEARY.

be extended northward during a series of years, the natives being utilized as carriers, messengers, and winter campers.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Lieutenant Peary's latest arctic venture has been marked with no sensational discoveries, but has yet been crowned with entire success. No very high latitude was reached, or indeed sought. Cape York, Cape Sabine, and Whale Sound were the chief objective points, none of them above the seventy-ninth parallel. In such a latitude, however, can best be established a principal base of supplies, from which in another season a further poleward advance may be made.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Lieutenant Peary's tenacious pluck has never been surpassed by any arctic explorer. He has persevered in his enterprises, though he has lacked the patriotic national support so eagerly given to Nansen.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

[Lieutenant Peary] expects to reach the pole, and it is probably safe to say that he has a better prospect of success than any explorer ever had before.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The indications are that Professor Andree instead of being lost is just entering on an active career of being discovered.

The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

The air up north has been more or less full of balloons ever since Andree started in a balloon for

PROF. S. A. ANDREE.

the pole. But the one seen at night over a village of arctic Siberia, on the 14th instant, may really have been the explorer's.

ENGLAND'S INDIAN REBELLION.

THE revolt of some of the tribes of northwestern India had been gotten under control, according to the English papers, about September 25, but there has been more fighting and considerable trouble may yet follow. The English troops have distinguished themselves in numerous bloody engagements. The causes of the rising are obscure. (1) It is alleged that the religious prejudices of the Mohammedan nations were in some way offended; (2) that Russian intrigue has been going on in the hill country; and (3) that maladministration of the province is responsible for the revolt. The English public is sensitive because the Russian frontier has in recent years advanced close up to India, and the Afghan ruler who holds the neutral zone in the pay of England may be secretly in the pay of Russia. The new advance of England up the Nile is offensive to Russia and that country may have a disposition to make trouble for Great Britain in Asia. It is officially announced that the famine is ended, but there are reports of an increase of the plague in the Bombay presidency.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

[The insurgents] have no chance of gaining assistance from the natives in the interior of the empire, and it looks as though the earlier reports of a desperate condition of affairs were grossly exaggerated, if not wholly without reasonable foundation.

The Evening Star. (Washington, D. C.)

The ameer is just now between two fires. His subjects are eager for the proclamation of a holy war against the English occupants of India, while international policy strongly demands a neutral position at present. The ameer has for some

months been reassuring England of his pacific intentions, but his people have been somehow managing to receive encouragement enough to warrant them in fomenting religious frenzy among the tribesmen of the hills.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The announcement made a few days ago in the official telegrams from India that the pacification of the Mohmunds north of the Khyber Pass had been effected, and that they had submitted to the British terms, appears to have been premature. So far from submitting, they refused to hand over their breech-loading rifles which they recently acquired, and with the value of which they have become acquainted, and have repulsed with vigor the renewed attacks of the British forces.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

From London it is officially announced that the famine in India, which is the greatest and most extensive which that empire has undergone since 1770, is now at an end. The rainy monsoon has thus far been both sufficient and wide-spread enough for the universal sowing of the autumn crop. Perhaps the best proof of the fact that brighter times are at hand for India is the fact that most of the villagers have abandoned the state relief works in order to till and sow their lands.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Should he [the ameer] show any sign of disaffection at this juncture England would not hesitate to seize his territory, and, as the possessions of Russia are right in his rear, complications with that power would naturally follow. It may be that it is in the far East that a great struggle for supremacy will yet be witnessed.

The World. (New York, N. Y.)

England's security on her northwest Indian frontier is based on the fact that there are hundreds of Afghan tribes but no Afghan nation.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

Of course it was but a question of time. Civilization in India is not to give way yet before a horde of fanatical barbarians.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

Official estimates place the number of British-born persons in India at about 120,000, and Dr. W. W. Hunter, the chief authority on Indian statistics, thinks 250,000 comprise all the Europeans in that country, including French and Portuguese, missionaries, traders, and half-breeds. It is an unprecedented phenomenon that so small a proportion of British should hold in subjection 290,000,000 population most mixed as to race and religion.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Something had happened which gave them [the tribesmen] the idea that England was weak, and the English critics of both parties agree that the exciting cause was the English management of the Greco-Turkish question.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Her Britannic Majesty is to be congratulated on the bravery of her soldiers in India. Natives as well as whites have behaved with conspicuous gallantry in the fighting with the hill tribes.

DR. ABEL STEVENS.

DR. ABEL STEVENS.

ONE of the most eminent literary men of Methodism, Dr. Abel Stevens, died at San José, Cal., September 11, in his eighty-third year, having been born in Philadelphia January 19, 1815. He was feeble in childhood and always liable to nervous prostration. He entered Wesleyan University, Middletown, Conn., but ill health and his attractiveness as a speaker combined to shorten his course of study. At nineteen he was financial agent of the university and at twenty he was pastor of a Boston church. In 1837 he made his first visit to Europe and witnessed the coronation of Queen Victoria. His letters from Europe attracted attention; he returned to become a pastor in Providence, R. I., and at the age of twenty-five became editor of *Zion's Herald*, Boston, and held that post for twelve years, meanwhile preaching nearly every Sunday, leaving it to become editor of *The National Magazine*, which was suspended at the end of three years. Dr. Stevens made a second trip to Europe and in 1856 became editor of the New York *Christian Advocate*. His editorship did not satisfy the radical anti-slavery men of the church, and in 1860 he was not reelected because he held that slaveholders had a constitutional right to membership in the church. This was his last official literary church work. He had already begun his great history of Methodism and completed it in 1861, under the title "History of the Religious Movement of the Eighteenth Century called Methodism." In 1863 he published "The Life and Times of Nathan Bangs," and in the next few

years his "History of the Methodist Episcopal Church in the United States" appeared in successive volumes. He was a pastor in New York from 1861 to 1865; after that date he gave himself entirely to writing for the periodical press and producing the less known volumes which bear his name, the most elaborate of which is "Madame de Staël, Her Life and Times," in two volumes. Much of Dr. Stevens' life since 1865 was spent in Europe, the last ten years in California.

The Christian Guardian. (Toronto, Can.)

The unexpected death of Dr. Abel Stevens removes one of the most widely known Methodists of the United States. As a preacher, as an editor, and as an author he had a diversified and most remarkable career.

The Christian Advocate. (New York, N. Y.)

He was as good a talker as Boswell represents Johnson to have been, but as unlike him as the songs of birds are unlike thunderclaps. . . . He was not argumentative in the intellectual duelist's sense of the word, a combat to the death, but if he disagreed with any sentiment would treat it discursively, leaving one of opposite views under the impression that he had been enveloped in a transparent gauze net whose strands were so strong that while he seemed to himself to be free there was an embarrassment attending his further expression of his sentiments. . . . . Several times he changed his views; in some instances unconsciously, when he exhibited much vigor in endeavoring to prove that he had not, but never, within our knowledge, resorted to a sophism to do so.

Zion's Herald. (Boston, Mass.)

He was so perennially young, and so virile, that we did not think of him as likely to be taken from us at present. His last contribution to the religious press—prepared, we think, for the columns of this paper—was in every respect as able and pertinent as anything he has ever written. . . . A remarkable life is ended. The name of Abel Stevens is the most distinguished in American Methodism.

PROBLEMS OF THE KLONDIKE REGION.

SEVERAL features of the situation in the frozen gold-fields attract general attention: (1) A large number of gold seekers have poured into the Upper Yukon country within three months and it is not probable that there is food enough to support them through the winter. The president and his cabinet have given serious attention to this danger of famine. (2) For maintaining order on the American portion of the gold-field a company of the Eighth United States Infantry has been sent to St. Michael's and may attempt to move up the river if means of transport can be devised. (3) Projects for new routes and new means of locomotion over the passes or on the ice of the lakes and streams are put forward. (4) A large number of companies have been organized for gold-mining.

The Seattle Post-Intelligencer. (Wash.)

The alarming reports of impending starvation do not appear to be justified. It is quite likely that there will be a shortage of provisions, but the miners at Dawson may be relied upon to husband their resources and promptly take every possible precaution to avoid severe famine.

The Daily Chronicle. (London, Eng.)

The whole Pacific coast is gold-crazy, and there appears to be a nefarious conspiracy between the press, the outfitters, and the steamship companies to push the boom regardless of consequences. It is an iniquitous business, and thousands are being lured to their ruin.

The Standard. (London, Eng.)

At the entrance to the passes are thousands of men cursing or weeping at their inability to enter the land of gold, which is barricaded by a barrier of frost and starvation.

The Westminster Gazette. (London, Eng.)

There is certainly no one on the Indian frontier now who will run so many chances of losing his life as the emigrant for Klondike. Yet, though you point this out and prove it to demonstration, your real gold seeker will go all the same. If there are three chances that he will lose his life and one that he will make his fortune, he will take the one chance notwithstanding.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

Despite the reports of hardship on the route and of the utter impossibility of getting in all the supplies now on the way to the gold-fields, Secretary Alger relies on his experience as a lumberman to establish a sufficient means of relief by the use of dog teams, traveling over the snow. Perhaps he is right, and the road will be better in the winter than in the summer.

The Tribune. (Denver, Col.)

It would appear to be impossible to reach Dawson with dog trains unless there is some means of supplying the dogs with food from sources encountered on the way.

The Republican Standard. (Bridgeport, Conn.)

Twenty or thirty Klondike companies have been started in this country and England, with an aggregate capital of about $150,000,000, and the names

of the capitalists engaged in "promoting" them are strong in the financial world. The limit of the Klondike productiveness has been set at $70,000,000, and here are corporations with capital to the amount of about double that sum, engaged in getting after it.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

A squad of thirty soldiers is a pretty small force with which to police a territory as long as the Mississippi Valley from New Orleans to Minneapolis. But the moral rather than the physical power of the little garrison is counted on to keep the peace, and it is likely to be sufficient for the purposes.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It is not the first time that the government has gone to the relief of arctic explorers; it is acting within its province now in seeking to minimize the distress that must necessarily follow those who seek to reach what is to them a land of promise.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

Secretary Alger's plan to use a traction engine to ascend the Yukon River for the relief of Dawson is of doubtful merit. It is true the frozen river will present a fairly even surface. But it will be covered with snow, and it is questionable if the engine could force its way through.

NEAL DOW.

GENERAL NEAL DOW.

THE famous temperance and prohibition leader, Neal Dow, born in Portland, Me., March 20, 1804, died in the city of his birth on the 2d of October, in his ninety-fourth year. He was the son of a tanner, was educated in the public schools, and entered his father's business at the age of fifteen. He soon became a speaker and writer on public questions, and became interested in the liquor question while he was chief of the Portland fire department with fourteen hundred men under him. He began by opposing the use of liquors at the annual suppers of this force. In 1839 he headed a movement for "no license" by vote of the city and was defeated by thirty-five votes. Four years later he secured a majority of four hundred. He then traveled over the state, holding prohibition meetings, and in 1846 presented a petition having forty thousand signatures to the legislature asking a prohibition law, and the law was enacted. In 1851 he was elected mayor of Portland and secured a more stringent prohibition law; it was repealed in 1855 and reenacted in 1856 and is known the world over as "the Maine Law," and has remained in force for more than forty years. He was prosperous in mercantile pursuits, served in the legislature, was overseer of the poor, bank director, president of a gaslight company, and participated in other business enterprises. From 1857 he worked for temperance in England until the agitations preceding the Civil War called him home. He served during the war as a colonel of the Thirteenth Maine, was twice wounded, was a prisoner in Libby Prison, and was exchanged for Fitzhugh Lee. He made a second crusade in England; was the first Prohibition candidate for president but declined and supported General Garfield. After that campaign he acted with the Prohibitionists and was consulted in all their proceedings. Until his last years his physical vigor was remarkable.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

[Neal Dow] was a man who, while championing a principle with all his might, never stooped to unworthy expedients to secure its recognition. He was not a man to compromise with political tricksters or to borrow their methods. His political record, like the record of his private life, is clean and honorable. It is a record which men may well point out as an example of honesty and high principle in politics.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Neal Dow is likely to be always remembered as its [prohibition's] life-long apostle. But there are other ways in which this old man will be recognized as entitled to remembrance. He was a good citizen, a strong patriot in the days of his country's peril. His services during the Civil War were meritorious.

Central Christian Advocate. (St. Louis, Mo.)

Many years of his consecrated life were given entirely to the promotion of prohibition, and no man can fully estimate the scope of his influence, nor the greatness of his achievements in behalf of this great movement. When its history is finally written his name will be found at the top of the list of the heroic spirits who organized and led the armies of prohibition.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

September 7. Secretary of Agriculture Wilson returns from a month's tour in the West and says he found farmers in good spirits and believes there is work for every man west of the Mississippi.

September 8. The Prohibitionists hold state conventions in New York and Massachusetts.

September 9. The Gold Democrats of Ohio nominate a state ticket.——Fourteen persons lose their lives and twelve are injured in a railroad collision at Emporia, Kan.——The Sons of Veterans begin a national encampment at Indianapolis, Ind.

September 10. The United States Agricultural Department will introduce the culture of the camphor tree into Florida.——At least thirty persons, it is reported, are killed and 185 injured in a railroad collision near New Castle, Col.

September 11. Republican campaign in Ohio is opened; Senators Foraker and Hanna speak in Burton.——Seven men are killed and six injured in a freight-train wreck at Hanson, Ind. T.

September 13. President McKinley returns to Washington.

September 14. Judge Cox of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia decides that the enforcement of civil service rules is a matter solely in the hands of the Executive Department and not cognizable by the courts.

September 15. The New York Democratic State Committee nominates Alton B. Parker for chief justice of the Court of Appeals, and takes no action upon the Chicago platform. —— Ex-Postmaster General Wilson is installed as president of Washington and Lee University at Lexington, Va.

September 16. The Illinois Federation of Labor includes free coinage of silver in its platform.

September 20. United States District Judge Foster, of Topeka, Kan., decides that the Kansas City Live Stock Association is illegal under the United States Anti-trust Law.——The Worcester, Mass., Musical Festival opens.

September 21. The Unitarian Conference meets at Saratoga, N. Y.——Dr. Hunter is acquitted of bribery in the senatorial election in Kentucky.

September 22. President McKinley speaks at a fair at North Adams, Mass.——The Indianapolis Monetary Commission meets in Washington.—— The National or Gold Democrats of New York endorse the nomination of Alton B. Parker for chief justice by the regular committee.

September 23. National Democrats in Nebraska nominate a state ticket.

September 24. President McKinley lays the corner-stone of a memorial library in Adams, Mass. ——A New York syndicate is reported to have obtained control of gas properties in Detroit, Milwaukee, Buffalo, and other cities.

September 28. Five men are killed by black damp in a mine at Rendham, Pa.——National conference of mayors and members of city councils meets at Columbus, O.

October 1. Heavy losses by marsh fires in the Kankakee Valley, Ill.——General drought in the West and forest fires do much damage.

FOREIGN.

September 7. The governor of New Guinea reported killed by natives.——Rich gold discoveries reported in Venezuela. —— The dervishes have evacuated Berber.

September 8. Bismarck is quoted as saying that Germany has now neither leaders nor principles. ——Trades unionists in session at Birmingham, England, demand change in jury laws.

September 9. The new Spanish tariff for Cuba reduces duties on nearly all American goods.

September 11. The king of Siam arrives in Paris and is welcomed by President Faure.—— The lives of twenty-seven of the crew of the British steamship *Polyphemus* lost in a collision in the Red Sea.

September 12. Peace made with Uruguayan insurgents is ratified by Congress.

September 16. Reports that the Chinese near Yaoping have been burning the houses of Christians and putting converts to torture.——Destructive fire in Cabul, the capital of Afghanistan.

September 19. Severe earthquake shocks in Turkestan and also in Switzerland.

September 20. The emperor of Germany cordially welcomed by the emperor of Austria at Budapest.

September 25. Count Badeni, the premier of Austria, is wounded in a duel by the leader of the Nationalist party.

September 26. A treaty between Japan and Chili is ratified.

October 3. Congress of Belgian miners demands an increase of fifteen per cent in wages.

NECROLOGY.

September 17. Henry W. Sage, a generous patron of Cornell University, at Ithaca, N. Y.

September 27. George M. Robeson, secretary of the navy in the second term of President Grant, at Trenton, N. J.

October 3. Ex-Senator Samuel J. R. McMillan, of Minnesota, at St. Paul.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR NOVEMBER.

First Week (ending November 5).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter VI.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter VII.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Goethe: His Life and Work."
Sunday Reading for October 31.

Second Week (ending November 12).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter VII.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter VIII.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Imperial Germany."
Sunday Reading for November 7.

Third Week (ending November 19).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter VIII.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter IX.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"The Economic Power of Germany."
Sunday Reading for November 14.

Fourth Week (ending November 26).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter IX.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter X.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"The Modern Tall Building."
"The Physical Changes of Nature."
Sunday Reading for November 21.

FOR DECEMBER.

First Week (ending December 3).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter X.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XI.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Schiller."
Sunday Reading for November 28.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR NOVEMBER.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. Literary Study—Goethe's "Faust."
3. Biographical Sketch—Herbert Spencer.
4. A Paper—The power of personal will in economic progress.
5. General Conversation—The news of the week.

Second Week.

Bismarck Day—November 16.

Wherever we see a great human life in progress, in the production of notable results, we may always know that there is something within it which drives it—a motive-power.—*J. G. Holland.*

1. A Talk—Bismarck's family.
2. Essay—Bismarck's domestic policy.
3. Essay—Bismarck's foreign policy.
4. Discussion—Who was responsible for the Franco-German War?
5. Essay—The Kulturkampf.

Third Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Paper—The German and the French military systems.
3. A Talk—What the local government has done for the economic welfare of the community.
4. Discussion—Industrial organization on a national basis as advocated by Edward Bellamy.
5. General Conversation—The present business outlook.*

Fourth Week.

1. General Conversation—Personal observations of the signs of approaching winter.
2. Discussion—Would the establishment of postal savings banks affect economic conditions in the United States?
3. A Talk—The educative value of cooperative societies.
4. Essay—Social intercourse in France, America, and Germany
5. Table Talk—The effect of the miners' strike.*

FOR DECEMBER.

First Week.

1. Essay—Woman's part in the history of Germany.
2. Select Reading—"Of Women," from Madame de Staël's "Germany."
3. Essay—Schiller's contemporaries.
4. Historical Study—Germany in Schiller's time.
5. A Political Study—Municipal reform in New York.

QUESTIONS ON "THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

The following questions on "The Social Spirit in America," prepared by Prof. C. R. Henderson, may be used for review and general discussion in the meetings of the circle.

Chapter I.—Introduction.

Give an account of the motives which lead to social action.

*See *Current History and Opinion.*

*See *Current History and Opinion.*

Try to distinguish between the subjects of sociology and of theology.

Describe a voluntary association known to you, its purpose, methods, and character of membership.

How do social improvements begin?

Why not use the word "reform"?

Chapter II.—Home-Making as a Social Art.

Define a "family."

What does the family do for society?

What are some of the effects of very low wages on the family?

What is luxury?

Tell what your neighborhood is doing to improve home life.

Chapter III.—Friendly Circles of Women Wage-Earners.

Why do women wage-earners need to combine?

What various forms of association have helped women of this class?

Describe any such society known to you.

Chapter IV.—Better Houses for the People.

What are the uses of a dwelling and how does it affect the various elements of welfare?

Why is associated action necessary in improving city dwellings?

Give an account of evil conditions you have observed in houses, and the causes.

How may towns improve the beauty of houses?

Chapter V.—Public Health.

How can we estimate the social value of health?

Describe the enemies of health observed in your own community.

Tell of some movements and methods of betterment.

How do vicious politics injure public health?

Chapter VI.—Good Roads and Communication.

What is the value to society of good roads?

Give illustrations from your own county or state.

Describe dangers and defects observed by yourself in highways, streets, or sidewalks.

What are some of the advantages of electric roads?

Give an argument for free delivery of letters in the country.

Chapter VII.—The First Factor of Industrial Reform: The Socialized Citizen.

What is the name of the special social science which deals with wealth, industry, and commerce?

Is there a natural order and system in the industrial world? Give evidences.

Tell of some means of improvement within reach of the individual, and illustrate from your own observation.

What do you think of the saying, "The wastefulness of the rich is the opportunity of the poor"?

Chapter VIII.—What Good Employers are Doing.

Give a brief account of: motives of employers; the power of employers; and their responsibility.

Is the character of the employer improving?

Give some illustrations of the kindness of this class.

What do you think of profit-sharing?

Chapter IX.—Organizations of Wage-Earners.

What interests draw members of this class together?

Describe a trades union known to you.

What is a strike?

What other forms of organization do you know?

Give some account of a local building and loan association.

What are the conditions of success in a cooperative society?

Chapter X.—Economic Cooperation of the Community.

Distinguish between conciliation and arbitration.

Tell of some instance when protective legislation is required.

What are some of the "factory laws" in your state?

Draw up an argument for government savings banks.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

THE following table explains some of the signs used in the pronunciation of words in this department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

K indicates the German *ch*, which has a guttural sound similar to a strongly aspirated *h*.

G indicates a sound similar to the German *ch*.

N indicates the French nasal sound, which is similar to the English *ng*.

ŭ represents a sound similar to *e* in her; to utter the sound place the lips in position for saying ŏ and pronounce ĕ.

ü represents the French *u*; to give the sound of ü, when the lips are in position to utter oo, pronounce ĕ without changing the position of the lips.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

P. 130. "Landwehr" [länt'vār]. That part of the national forces in Germany which has completed regular military service and is called out only in times of war, except perhaps occasionally for drill.

P. 136. "Nikolsburg" [nē'kols-boorG]. An Austrian town in which Austria and Prussia negotiated in 1866 the preliminary peace confirmed by the peace of Prague a short time afterward.

P. 137. "Sylla." The same as Sulla, a Roman dictator born in 138 B. C.

P. 140. "Turco-Russian War." The war between Turkey and Russia, 1877–78, concluded with the peace of San Stefano, the terms of which were unsatisfactory to England and Austria. A congress consisting of representatives of seven European powers—Germany, Austria, Russia, Italy, England, France, and Turkey—was convened at Berlin at the invitation of Bismarck in 1878 for settling the affairs of the Balkan Peninsula.

P. 140. "Pour le Mérite." For merit.

P. 143. "Überzeugungstreue" [ü-ber-zoig'ungs-troi-e.]

P. 143. "Pillars of Hercules." According to ancient geographies, two promontories, one in Europe and one in Africa, situated at the eastern extremity of the Strait of Gibraltar. One authority explains that they were so called because it was supposed that Hercules rent them asunder.

P. 145. "Lord Clive" (1725—74). The founder of the British Empire in India.

P. 145. "Surajah Dowlah" [soo-rä'ja dou'la]. A nabob of Bengal who imprisoned the British soldiers in the Black Hole of Calcutta in 1756. Clive was sent to avenge the horrible deed and compelled him to sue for peace. The negotiations were conducted principally by Mr. Watts, an Englishman, and Omichund, a native of Bengal. A plot which Clive is said to have abetted was formed to depose the nabob and place Meer Jaffier, the commander of his troops, on the throne. Omichund, a treacherous villain, just as the plot was to be put into operation proved false to the English and demanded a large sum as hush-money. Clive promised to comply with the demand, but he resolved to outwit the Bengalee. Omichund insisting that his claims should be mentioned in the treaty between Meer Jaffier and the English, Clive had two treaties drawn up, only one of which contained the name of Omichund. After the battle between the English and Indian forces near Plassey, Meer Jaffier was installed as nabob of Bengal and Surajah Dowlah was captured and executed. Omichund, coming with the other allies to Meer Jaffier for a reward, found that no mention had been made of his claims.

P. 146. "Haimon." Haimon, or Aymon, count of Ardennes, was a celebrated character in the French romances of the Middle Ages. The adventures of his four sons furnish subjects for some of the literature of the thirteenth century. Their real existence is doubted.

P. 150. "Beust" [boist]. A statesman and diplomatist for Saxony and Austria. He died in 1886.

P. 150. "Count Arnim" (1824—81), a German statesman, was charged with filching and publishing state documents, for which he was sentenced to imprisonment. He was also sentenced to penal servitude on a charge of lese-majesty, which in his case consisted in publishing a pamphlet against the chancellor.

P. 150. "Geffcken." After the death of Emperor Frederick, Professor Geffcken published extracts from the emperor's diary, kept during the Franco-German War. For this the professor was arrested and tried before the Supreme Court of Germany on a charge of treason.

P. 155. "Varzin" [fär'tsin]. A town of Pomerania, Prussia, near which is situated Bismarck's residence.

P. 159. "John Bright" (1811—89). An English orator and statesman.

P. 161. "Villiers Champigny" [ve-yā' shoN-pēn-yē'].

P. 162. "Marshal Bazaine," a general of the French army, signed terms of capitulation at Metz in 1870 before a shot from the enemy had been fired into the fort. For this he was accused of treachery and the investigation revealed the fact that he had had communication with Bismarck, by whom he was induced to capitulate. He was tried, found guilty of four charges brought against him, and condemned to death, but the sentence was commuted to twenty years' seclusion.

P. 163. "Weissenburg" [vīs'sen-boorG].—— "Gravelotte" [grav-lot'].

P. 165. "Danton" [doN-toN']. A French revolutionist guillotined in 1794.

P. 166. "Nachod" [nä'kōd]. A town of Bohemia where the Prussians under Steinmetz defeated the Austrians in 1866.

P. 166. "Blücher" [blüK'er]. The commander of the Prussians at Waterloo. He was called Marshal Forward ("Vorwärts") on account of the dashing spirit with which he conducted his campaigns.

P. 167. "Die Wacht am Rhein." The Watch on the Rhine.

P. 167. "Spicheren" [spē'Ker-en]. A town in German Lorraine.

P. 167. "Bourget" [boor-zhā'].

P. 168. "Waldersee" [väl'der-zā].

P. 173. "Ligny" [lēn-yē']. A Belgian town southeast of Brussels.

P. 174. "Arbela." The defeat of the Persians under Darius by the Macedonians under Alexander the Great at the battle of Arbela in 331 B. C. led to the final overthrow of the Persian Empire.

P. 181. "Covenanters." A name given to the Scotch Presbyterians who in the time of Charles I. banded themselves together by a solemn covenant to resist encroachments on religious liberty.

P. 184. "Herzegovina" [hert-se-gō-vē'nä]. A district south of Bosnia occupied by Austria-Hungary since 1878.

P. 200. "Buccleuch" [buk-klū'].

P. 213. "Primrose League." A league formed in Great Britain, the members of which are pledged to the conservative principles advocated by the earl of Beaconsfield. His favorite flower furnished the name and symbol for the league.

P. 218. "Rechthaberei" [reKt'häb-er-ī].

P. 223. "Puckler." An author of books of travel.——"Varnhagen von Ense" [färn'hä-gen fon en'se]. A German author.——"Lassalle" [lä-säl']. The founder of the Social Democratic party of Germany.——"Rahel Levin." A writer, the wife of Karl August Varnhagen von Ense.

P. 227. "Cadging." Sponging or living upon another.

P. 227. "Tuft-hunter." One who courts the acquaintance of noblemen in a servile manner for gain.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"GOETHE: HIS LIFE AND WORK."

1. "Corneille" [kor-nāy']. A French dramatist of the seventeenth century (1606–84).——"Molière" [mō-lyār']. The name assumed by Jean Baptiste Poquelin [pōk-laN'], a French actor and dramatist of the seventeenth century (1612–73).——"Racine" [rä-sēn']. A French dramatic poet contemporary with Corneille and Molière.

2. "Storm and stress." This period, called in German *Sturm und Drang Periode*, extended from about 1770 to 1780 and took its name from a drama, "Sturm und Drang," by Klinger, who was the most conspicuous representative of this period, the literature of which is noted for impetuosity of style.

3. "Herder" (1744–1803). A German poet.

4. "Götz von Berlichingen" [gēts fon ber' liCK-ing-en]. The drama which bears this title was constructed from the autobiography of Götz von Berlichingen, a German feudal knight who died in 1562. In the battle of Landshut he lost his right hand, which was replaced by one of iron. For that reason he was called "Götz with the Iron Hand."

5. "Peasants' War." An uprising of the peasants in Germany against the clergy and nobles.

6. "Wieland" [vē'länd]. A German poet and author. He died in 1813.

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

P. 106. *Blasé* [bla-zā']. Palled, surfeited; incapable of continued enjoyment.

P. 111. "Malthusianism." The theory concerning the relation of population to the means of subsistence advocated by Thomas Robert Malthus, an English economist, in his "Essay on the Principle of Population." Population, he claimed, tends to increase in a geometrical, and means of subsistence in an arithmetical, ratio.

P. 120. "*Noblesse oblige.*" A French expression meaning nobility obliges, *i. e.*, nobility of rank imposes the obligation of noble feeling and conduct.

P. 160. "*Conseils des Prud' Hommes*" [koN-sāl da prü-dom'].

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

1. "French indemnity." The sum which France agreed to pay to Germany as a war indemnity at the close of the War of 1870–71.

2. "*Imperium in imperio.*" A Latin phrase meaning a government within a government.

3. *Lèse-majesté'*. Lese-majesty, a crime committed against the supreme power of a state; treason.

"THE ECONOMIC POWER OF GERMANY."

1. "Hanseatic League." A confederation formed by the cities of northern Germany and neighboring countries, known as the Hanse towns, with cities in different parts of Europe, for the purpose of stimulating commerce and protecting it against robbers and pirates. At one time the league exercised great power, made treaties, and secured its claims by the force of arms in different countries of Europe.

2. "Zollverein" [tsōl'fer-īn]. From the German *Zoll*, custom, and *Verein*, union. A confederation of German states for the purpose of levying uniform duties on goods imported from other countries and of maintaining free trade among themselves. It began early in this century with an agreement between Prussia and the grand duchy of Hesse and it has been gradually joined by other German states until now it includes the German Empire.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

1. Q. What are the dominant elements in Bismarck's character? A. Boldness, perspicacity, and dogged determination, allied to astute caution.

2. Q. What is the foremost of his characteristics? A. The power of rising above his narrower self and making the interests of his country supreme.

3. Q. In what principle is Bismarck a stanch believer? A. In the monarchical principle.

4. Q. To what may much of the opposition to Bismarck's home policy be traced? A. To a spirit of jealousy.

5. Q. Since 1870, what have the many years of Bismarck's political preponderance meant? A.

Peace in Europe and increasing prosperity in Germany.

6. Q. What is the character of the German army? A. It is an army of peace and its moral standing is by far the highest of any army the world has yet seen.

7. Q. In what does the strength of the Germans lie? A. In the fact that at the call of duty they overcome their antipathy to fighting and stand—a nation in arms—ready to meet those who have put them to the trouble of doing so.

8. Q. What is the key-note of the whole organization of Prussia, civil and military? A. A supreme sense of conscientiousness and duty.

9. Q. What is one of the chief causes of the excellence of the German army? A. The efficiency of the army and the choice of its leaders are perfectly independent of public opinion.

10. Q. For what was the order of the Iron Cross a reward? A. For duty done more than for personal distinction achieved.

11. Q. By what was the German army aided at Sedan? A. The wonderful marching capacity displayed by the soldiers.

12. Q. What has been the effect of the Prussian army on the masses of the country? A. It has been the means of raising the moral and the physical standard of the masses.

13. Q. How is service in the Prussian army considered? A. As a national duty, and not necessarily a career for the individual.

14. Q. In what may be found the key-stone of the moral influence and of the position of the Prussian officer? A. In the rigid cultivation of the point of honor.

15. Q. What is the main difference between the German aristocracy and that of England? A. German aristocracy has adopted the example of royalty, whereas the English aristocracy has, up to the present day, held to the original idea that a title must represent power.

16. Q. What does a German title mean in most cases? A. That its possessor is an amiable descendant of one of many who once, perhaps, owned land and power.

17. Q. What has been the consequence in Germany of intermarrying only with equals? A. The gradual erection of a barrier which may be said to divide the aristocracy of birth from the aristocracy of intellect and the middle classes more than they are so divided in any other European country.

18. Q. In Saxony what is the result of this barrier? A. The line that separates the aristocracy from the people is so distinct that the former can even be seen to be of an entirely different race from the latter.

19. Q. How do the German people regard their aristocracy? A. As the toadies of royalty.

20. Q. With what feeling do the masses regard the nobility? A. With a feeling of distrust.

21. Q. How has the German aristocracy borne itself toward the untitled? A. It has used its influence to ostracize the untitled from its own society and from that of its sovereign.

22. Q. Who in Germany are privileged to be received at court? A. With the exception of the official world, only the titled.

23. Q. What has helped to decrease the envy felt for the nobility in Germany? A. The conscientious manner in which it performed its duty in the army.

24. Q. What class is peculiar to Germany? A. The poor aristocracy.

25. Q. Upon what profession do they depend for support? A. The profession of arms.

26. Q. What is the result of the social restriction of the German women? A. It produces a latent feeling of envy and jealousy.

27. Q. What is one cardinal characteristic of German society? A. Hyper-sensitiveness.

28. Q. How does the custom of spending much time in the beer-house influence the German? A. It roughens his manners, particularly toward ladies, and encourages the love of small-talk and gossip.

29. Q. What barbarous custom still exists in Germany practically without restraint? A. Duelling.

30. Q. In what city has untitled intellect held from time to time a distinct and recognized social position? A. In Berlin.

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

1. Q. What is our first duty in respect to the present social system? A. To understand it, to find whether anything can be done, and to concentrate our wits on definite problems.

2. Q. What is obviously essential to national welfare? A. That there should be a body of expert social students and that the people be generally so well informed that they will be discreet in the selection of administrators.

3. Q. By what have men been stimulated to labor? A. By their primary wants and by their secondary motives, as love of admiration, praise, etc.

4. Q. What is the result of enlarged, multiplied, and refined desires? A. They quicken ingenuity and give motive to industry.

5. Q. What is one of the results of inventions? A. They increase the number of unemployed workmen.

6. Q. What are those who see the evils of society morally bound to do? A. To seek constitutional and specific remedies.

7. Q. By what law does luxury produce its effect upon men? A. By the law of suggestion and imitation.

8. Q. What is the best contribution any man

can make to the economic welfare of society? A. Himself as a socialized citizen who finds his habitual satisfaction in ways which are favorable to the well-being of all.

9. Q. What does Mr. Spencer say in regard to a wage-earner's freedom of contract? A. "This liberty amounts in practice to little more than ability to exchange one slavery for another."

10. Q. When may society hope for more humane capitalists? A. When it ceases to worship bare wealth and shows its respect for the higher human qualities.

11. Q. What is one of the amazing phenomena of our century in the industrial world? A. The hierarchy of responsibility by which vast enterprises are controlled from a central office.

12. Q. What does the process of social selection tend to do in regard to the employer? A. To eliminate the inferior employer by driving his inferior goods out of the market.

13. Q. In what can the employer and factory inspector cooperate? A. In the effort to exclude children from exhausting labors fit only for adults.

14. Q. What method of remunerating workmen should be adopted? A. That which appeals to the better nature and higher motives of the workmen.

15. Q. What is one of the proposed experiments for lessening the difficulties arising between employer and employee? A. Profit-sharing.

16. Q. Of what are trades unions manifestations? A. Of solidarity of interests.

17. Q. What is the function of organization? A. To regulate action.

18. Q. How long have trades unions been legal in this country? A. Since the Revolution.

19. Q. What is the effect of the various associations organized for mutual benefit? A. They raise a lofty and strong barrier against pauperism, and bring men and women into relations of mutual helpfulness and friendship.

20. Q. What discovery does the author rank with that of the steam-engine? A. The discovery of the principle of distributing individual risks by social action.

21. Q. In what are seen the immediate advantages of cooperation on the Rochdale plan? A. In the superior quality of the goods, in protection from short weights and adulteration, in assurance of moderate prices.

22. Q. What class of cooperative schemes have taken deepest root and borne most abundant fruit? A. Those that have been the most frankly democratic in nature.

23. Q. What is the growing opinion in regard to the settlement of disputes between employers and employees? A. That they shall be decided by rational means rather than by brute force.

24. Q. What effect has the protection of the state on the value of money earned? A. Every dollar earned has greater purchasing power.

25. Q. According to statistics what class of factory operatives are at greatest risk in their labor? A. Boys and girls.

26. Q. In what way can a community help to reduce the misery and degradation of the sweating system? A. By refusing to buy goods without the guaranty of a union label that they are not made in insanitary rooms and at starvation wages.

27. Q. In what way can great trusts be brought under control? A. By the invention and use of suitable political machinery, managed by capable and honest legislators and administrators.

28. Q. What would be the benefits of postal savings banks? A. People would be able to accumulate a moderate capital, at the same time becoming more deeply attached to the government.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—II.

1. When do a Prussian country and a Prussian people first appear in history?

2. Under what name are the people first mentioned in history?

3. Who suffered martyrdom at the hands of the ancient Prussians while attempting to convert them to Christianity? At the time he was slain what was he doing?

4. Why did the ancient Prussians resist conversion?

5. When was the Christian faith established among them?

6. From what were the national colors of the present kingdom of Prussia derived?

7. Whose reign represents one of the most prominent stages in the early development of Prussia?

8. What was the result of his alliance with Charles X. of Sweden against Poland?

9. Who was the first king of Prussia?

10. How did he obtain the title of king?

GERMAN LITERATURE.—II.

1. Since the mass of minnesingers could neither read nor write, how were their songs preserved?

2. Name four early lyric poets who wrote romances of chivalry?

3. What fact shows the lack of originality in the romances of chivalry?

4. What supplanted the literature of chivalry?

5. What caused the decline of all branches of literature about 1300?

6. The founding of what university in the fourteenth century had an important influence over the future development of literature?

7. What effect had the invention of the art of printing on the burghers?

8. What name is given to the German which Luther wrote?

9. How did Luther's writings influence the language of Germany?

10. When and where was Luther's translation of the Bible published?

NATURE STUDIES.—II.

1. What is the so-called "physical basis of life"?

2. How are the tips of young roots and rootlets protected from injury?

3. How do trees and shrubs prepare for winter?

4. After the leaves have fallen what may be seen on the branches of the trees? Of what do they consist?

5. How does the tree arrange for protection at the point from which a leaf has fallen?

6. How are the underground stores of food hoarded by plants in the autumn often protected against animals?

7. When are the catkins of the birch and alder formed?

8. When do they break into bloom?

9. When does the fruit of the red, or soft, maple mature?

10. When does the seed of the sugar maple ripen and how should it be kept until time for sowing?

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. By whom was the Indianapolis Monetary Convention called and when did it meet?

2. What was the purpose of the meeting?

3. What step did the convention take toward securing legislation on a subject suggested at the convention?

4. What bill relating to the subject was introduced into Congress and what became of it?

5. When did the president sign the Dingley Bill?

6. When did it go into effect?

7. When did the miners' strike begin and where was its center?

8. The miners of what states took part in the strike?

9. How many times has Diaz been called to the presidency of Mexico and when does his present term expire?

10. How often is the president of Mexico elected and by whom?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR OCTOBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—II.

1. "Germania" by Tacitus. 2. Mannus, the first man, the son of the god Tuisco. 3. The Cimbrians and the Teutons. 4. Cæsar and the generals of Augustus. 5. Teuroburger Wald. 6. Arminius. 7. Henry I. 8. The attempt of Huss to reform the doctrines of the church. 9. The Hohenstaufen. 10. In 1273, by the election of Count Rudolph as Emperor Rudolph I.

GERMAN LITERATURE.—I.

1. The "Nibelungenlied." 2. It was written by an unknown author about the year 1200. 3. Richard Wagner in his "Der Ring des Nibelungen," including "Das Rheingold," "Die Walküre," "Siegfried," and "Götterdämmerung." 4. Translation of the Bible. 5. This is the only or nearly the only existing remnant of the Gothic language. 6. In the thirteenth century by an unknown author in Austria or Bavaria. 7. To the Odyssey. 8. Called the troubadours of Germany. They were lyric poets of high rank who sang of love, springtime, women, and nature. 9. Their songs tended to soften the manners and lift the hearts of the German people. 10. The Meistersingers.

NATURE STUDIES.—I.

1. Carbonic acid or carbon dioxide. 2. Of carbon and oxygen mixed in the proportion of one part carbon to two parts oxygen. 3. The separating of carbon and hydrogen from oxygen by the aid of sunlight and using them in building up fresh forms which possess energy. 4. The green parts. 5. Small green jelly-like specks enclosed in a cell-wall. 6. The division of the parent plant into two similar and equal portions. 7. Heredity. 8. The air. 9. Chlorophyl. 10. The tips of the root.

CURRENT EVENTS.—I.

1. About 32,000. 2. Three hundred and nine. 3. In 1884; the general laws of Oregon. 4. In a treaty between Russia and Great Britain in 1825. 5. A line extending north from the most southern point of Prince of Wales Island along the Portland channel "as far as the point of the continent where it strikes the fifty-sixth degree of north latitude"; from this point the line was to follow the summit of the mountains which were parallel with the coast to the "point of intersection of the one hundred and forty-first degree of west longitude," which, extending to the Arctic Ocean, was to form the boundary

line between the Russian and British possessions on the American continent. Another provision of the treaty says that wherever the mountains, which extend parallel to the coast, are more than ten marine leagues from the ocean the boundary shall be a line parallel to the windings of the coast at a distance which shall not exceed ten marine leagues therefrom. 6. About two hundred and twenty-nine per square mile. 7. Under general acts passed by the British Parliament by a governor general who receives instructions from the secretary of state for India, a member of the British cabinet. 8. Four, each under a lieutenant-general, the entire army being commanded by a commander-in-chief, and controlled by the Indian government. 9. The earl of Elgin and Kincardine. 10. For four years by an electoral college elected by universal manhood suffrage.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882–1901.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner; S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

Now is the high tide of the year;
And whatever of life has ebbed away
Comes flooding back, with a ripply cheer,
Into every bare inlet and creek and bay.

IT is with some such spirit as this that the Class of '98 are already looking forward to the last quarter of their four years' race. The goal is almost in sight and yet it is far enough in the distance for the belated members of the class to take courage and press on. Many have already reported for the work of the coming year. Fourteen members from Galesburg, Ill., are looking forward to the successful completion of their work. We hope that every one of the fourteen will be able to visit Chautauqua and by his presence and inspiration prove how possible it is for a circle to hold its members together for the four years. We remember one circle which graduated in the Class of '82 which started with fifteen and graduated with fifteen. We do not know whether our Galesburg classmates have been equally fortunate, but they are certainly to be congratulated, and the whole class feels the inspiration of their example. We hear also of a splendid circle in Utica, N. Y., which promises to be with us next summer for graduation. Let other '98's let us know of their prospects. It is not too early to begin planning for Chautauqua, or, if Chautauqua is not a possibility, then for one of the other Assemblies. Send in your names early to the office at Buffalo and we shall know of your prospects.

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—John A. Travis, Washington, D. C.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlysle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, England; Miss Alice Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tientsin, China.

Secretary—Miss Isabelle T. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer—John C. Whiteford, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Trustee—Miss M. A. Bortle, Mansfield, O.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

THE Patriots are entering upon their third year of work with an energy quite characteristic of this class. One member reports that he is reading the books of four earlier years than those of his own class, as he had access to these and was thus enabled to take the course without the expense of buying new books. This plan is always a feasible one, and members of the class who find the financial question a serious one can often tide themselves over by using for one of their year's readings some old set of books on the same subjects, borrowed from some fellow Chautauquan.

AN interesting letter comes from Canton, China, from Dr. and Mrs. Swan, who are reading the course amid the labors of the mission field. Dr. Swan writes: "I doubt if there are any readers on the C. L. S. C. roll that have as little time at their command for their reading as we have, yet with all the effort it has cost we feel it is a great benefit and find great pleasure in it. In sedan chairs or in little native boats, while on my way to visit patients, I have spent many a delightful hour with this reading course, and often it has served to lighten the burden of care and worry incidental to missionary work."

ANOTHER classmate reports from Tientsin, China, and orders her new Membership Book.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

"Licht, Liebe, Leben."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—Rev. John A. McKamy, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, Canisteo, N. Y.; J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer.—Miss Mabel Campbell, 53 Youngslove Ave., Cohoes, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

THE members of the Class of 1900 are already sending their renewals for the new year, and the Membership Books are being mailed to them from the office at Buffalo. If there is any uncertainty in the mind of any members about the membership fee, we would remind them that the fee is an annual one, and should be sent to John H. Vincent, Buffalo, N. Y.

THE new Membership Book for the German-Roman year is very attractive. It bears on the outside cover the imperial coat of arms, and on the third page of the cover a fine portrait of the old emperor.

A BUSY member of the class who is also the leader of a most successful little circle writes: "This is our year for receiving visits from our relatives. I talk C. L. S. C. to them all, and they carry it away to Indiana, Tennessee, Canada, and Washington." She also adds the excellent suggestion that she hopes to present a set of this year's books to the Y. W. C. A. rooms, so that many of the young people who live at the Association may be able to take the course. She sends also a very pleasant and suggestive little verse on "Reading," not, however, original, which other members of the class may find inspiring:

Just dropping off the harness
From our over-wearied thought,
And resting in the beauty
That another brain has wrought.

THE secretary of this class makes the following important announcements: "At the meetings of the Class of 1900 at Chautauqua many things of interest to the class were discussed. The banner, which must be designed and ready for Recognition Day, is under consideration and any ideas which may come to you will be gratefully received if sent to the secretary.

"The class must bear its share in furnishing the room jointly occupied by the Classes of '92 and 1900. The class has another obligation which is of more importance and more formidable. When we accepted the use of a room in the Union Class Building, we assumed the obligation of paying a certain sum before Recognition Day. The members gathered at Chautauqua started a fund and decided to ask for further contributions, which may be sent to the treasurer. Although the class has many members, that will count but little unless each member feels his personal responsibility and sends what he feels is his share in the class life.

"A class song of three or four short stanzas is needed. Members of the Class of 1900 are asked to compete for the honor of class poet by writing such a song. This must be written to be sung to some familiar air or be accompanied by music written for those special words.

"The German motto—'Licht, Liebe, Leben'—is a working motto for this year, the idea being to adopt a special motto for each coming year."

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS."

"Light, Love, Life."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—William H. Mosely, New Haven, Conn.; Rev. George S. Duncan, D. C.; John Sinclair, New York; Mrs. Samuel George, W. Va.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Harriet Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—COREOPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

ENROLLMENTS for the new class are reported in large numbers from the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo. Nearly three hundred new members were enrolled at Chautauqua, and out of these forty-five were from New York State, thirty-four from Ohio, sixty from Pennsylvania, and twenty-one from Illinois. The enrollment from Virginia and from Texas was also quite a remarkable one, and circles may be expected in large numbers from all of these states, as well as from all the other states, which were nearly all represented in a greater or less degree. The reports received from the Assemblies all through the early fall indicate a great degree of activity in the interest of the new class.

CERTAIN questions are always asked by the beginners in Chautauqua work, and as many such queries are being received at the office at Buffalo it may not be amiss to state here, for the benefit of our classmates, that the filling out of the memoranda is not absolutely essential to graduation, and that any one who reads the four years' course is entitled to a diploma, which rests not upon an examination but simply upon the reading of the prescribed books.

THREE members of the class are from Kingston, Jamaica, and hope to form a little circle when they return to their home. One of these Chautauquans, who is a trained nurse and who has also taken the London University Extension examinations, writes in reply to the question as to the population of the town in which she lives: "The village where we live has about four houses and a collection of native

huts." Other members of the class will think with much interest of these isolated fellow workers. In this connection it is interesting to note that the class is to have a large enrollment from Mexico. A circle of ten members has already been organized in San Luis Potosi, Mexico, and there is prospect of at least as many more.

A GRADUATE member sends this query, and as it may be very helpful to some members of the new class who are trying to interest friends we give it here: Two friends of the writer are anxious to begin their Chautauqua work but she fears they have not time for the full course. They are therefore solving the difficulty by taking up the Current History Course, thus making a beginning as Chautauqua students. Members of the new class who find difficulty in persuading people to take up the full course will, we are sure, succeed in interesting them if they send to the Chautauqua office at Buffalo, N. Y., for a circular of the short courses. The Half-Hour Course is a short course, including part of the C. L. S. C. work and leading up to it. Those who enroll as Half-Hour students are quite likely to come out as C. L. S. C. graduates in the end.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

THE outlook among the graduate circles and leaders is already promising. The Alpha Circle of Cincinnati, one of the oldest Chautauqua circles, will take up the study of Shakespeare this year. They are also determined that each member of the circle shall, if possible, win five members for the new class. The Alpha is setting a splendid example, and it is hoped that other graduates will feel their responsibility in a similar manner. A graduate, who is also a busy professional woman, has time not only for the Garnet Seal work, but also for the Current History work. She writes: "I find the Chautauqua work a rest in the sense that it gives me a change from my regular reading connected with my regular medical work. I would be lost without it, though my life is a busy one."

IT may be that some C. L. S. C. graduate wants to secure one of the sets of books, or part of a set, belonging to one of the past courses. Miss Jane Henderson, of the Worth House, Hudson, N. Y., has two full sets for '90-91 and '91-92, all of the books being in excellent condition.

THE new Current History circulars are being sent out to all C. L. S. C. graduates, and it is hoped that every graduate who is not engaged in the regular study of the undergraduate course will take up the Current History work, as by this means he or she keeps in close connection with Chautauqua, and not only receives the great benefit which comes from continuing habits of systematic study, and of being well informed upon the topics of the time, but also is enabled by this very connection with the C.L.S.C. to extend its helpful influence. The Current History Course has proven a favorite course, and the work required is so light, comparatively, that the graduate is able to take up some special line of study.

MUCH interest is also being evinced in Miss Hale's Reading Journey through England. This course forms a capital preparation for a journey to England, and those graduate Chautauquans who are cherishing the hope of a visit to the Old World in the near future will find delight in this course.

THE Bible Courses include as usual two admirable lines of work. First, the course for reading the entire Bible and filling out the prescribed memoranda; second, two courses under the direction of the American Institute of Sacred Literature, one in the life of Christ and another in literature relating to the life of Christ. The institute is under the direction of President Harper, who is also the collegiate principal of Chautauqua, and these two courses are recognized by the C. L. S. C. as regular seal courses.

EVERY active C. L. S. C. graduate is again reminded that no more loyal service can be rendered to his *alma mater* than by securing new members for the Class of 1901. If every one of the forty thousand graduates of the C. L. S. C. made it a point to influence one new reader every year it would not be very long before the entire English-speaking world would be Chautauquans.

GUILD OF THE SEVEN SEALS.

OFFICERS.

President—A. M. Martin, Pittsburg, Pa.
First Vice President—Mrs. George R. McCabe, Toledo, O.
Second Vice President—Mrs. L. R. Clarke, Andover, N. Y.
Secretary and Treasurer—Miss A. H. Gardner, 106 Chandler St., Boston, Mass.
Executive Committee—Mrs. E. F. Curtiss, Geneseo, N. Y.; Miss M. E. Landfear, New Haven, Conn.; Mrs. William Hoffman, Troy, Pa.
Historian—Mrs. W. H. Westcott, Holley, N. Y.

Fellow Members of the Guild of the Seven Seals:

I send greetings to you, the representatives of the highest order of the Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle. We aspire to the loftiest attainments in our wide-spreading circle. Numbering already over five hundred, we form a numerical power and are constantly gaining strength by new accessions to our ranks. Our hopes are toward a membership that will soon be the largest of any of the orders or classes of the C. L. S. C. We are gaining recognition in the line of higher reading and study. Already we are planning for an important part on the C. L. S. C. program at Chautauqua for the coming year. These lines I write at Chautauqua as the echoes of the Guild decennial exercises have hardly passed away. We want to develop the higher spirit and culture in our reading. We hope for the helpful elements of goodly fellowship at its

best. More than two thousand persons now belong to the League of the Round Table. Are there not many of the League who, by a little extra effort, can add to their seals a sufficient number to be enrolled with the Guild? We look forward confidently to having our membership doubled during the coming year. The members of the Guild have their attention called particularly to the special seal course provided for them at this time and elsewhere stated in detail. It is hoped that a large number of the Guild members will undertake this seal course. It will not only be stimulating to you but in many cases will serve to keep you in sympathy and contact with those who are reading the current course for the present year. We shall from time to time invite your attention to the Guild through the columns of THE CHAUTAUQUAN. With enthusiasm, with zeal, with constancy of purpose, with patient work, there will come to you the recompense of renewed delights and larger and broader lives.

Very sincerely yours,

A. M. MARTIN, president.

AT the request of the members of the Guild of the Seven Seals at Chautauqua this summer a special course of reading was arranged for members of this organization. The course decided upon included THE CHAUTAUQUAN and the three following books: first, "The Social Spirit in America"; second, "Imperial Germany"; third, "The Ascent of Man," by Henry Drummond.

It is hoped that all members of the Guild will be able to read these books during the coming year. Special memoranda have been prepared and can be secured by sending the usual fee of 50 cents to the office at Buffalo. These memoranda will not be quite so elaborate as the ordinary seal papers, so that the older members of the Guild may not find the requirements of the course burdensome.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God." *"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."*
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1897–98.

WILLIAM I. DAY—October 25.
BISMARCK DAY—November 16.
MOLTKE DAY—December 3.
PLINY DAY—January 23.
JUSTINIAN DAY—February 10.
FREDERICK II. DAY—March 20.
MOHAMMED DAY—April 3.
NICCOLO PISANO DAY—May 28.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

AS usual at this time of year, the country is in a ferment of Chautauqua activity. The Buffalo office is feeling the effects of this very strongly at the present time, and letters requesting information about the C. L. S. C. are pouring in by every mail. Various newspaper items have called forth a surprising amount of interest, and the return of better times seems to be indicated by the eagerness of people to carry out new plans. Occasionally comes one who is looking for a course leading to a degree, but in general they are busy men and women occupied with home or business cares, and the German-Roman year of the C. L. S. C. has touched a responsive chord. One correspondent from a little town in Tennessee, a mining region, is working with great intelligence and perseverance for a circle, and we feel sure that he will succeed. He writes: "I do earnestly wish that a secretary of the circle could invade these mountains. We must have right education to save this people from narrow prejudice and frivolity and looseness and crime."

MR. GEORGE H. LINCKS, the secretary for Hudson County, N. J., has been the means of securing the observance of a Good Literature Sunday in his locality, with the result that no less than twenty pastors will preach upon the subject and a new impulse will be given to Chautauqua work. The Hudson County circles held a successful fall reunion and reception on the 25th of September in the Sunday-school rooms of the First Presbyterian Church, when Rev. George M. Brown, field secretary of the C. L. S. C., delivered the address.

THE Jersey City circles seem to be feeling the new atmosphere which most Americans are breathing at this time, and promise to report splendid results later.

IN New England Rev. W. D. Bridge, president

of the C. L. S. C. Class of '84, and a most energetic Chautauquan, reports a promising revival in C. L. S. C. work. He has recently organized a new circle in connection with the Gloucester Fisherman's Institute, and there is prospect of other circles in the same town; the Epworth League of the First Methodist Church in Lynn are also proposing to take up Chautauqua as their literary work. Circles in Chelsea and Lowell are probable through the interest of pastors who propose to hold the Sunday Vesper Service. There seems to be a general movement among the pastors to take hold of this feature of Chautauqua work. A delightful article in *The Christian Register* by Dr. Edward Everett Hale brings Chautauqua to the attention of a large circle of readers, and also announces in this connection Mr. Bridge's appointment by Chautauqua as district secretary of the C. L. S. C. for New England.

IN connection with the New York East Conference of the Methodist Church Miss C. A. Teal, who has been active in C. L. S. C. work for many years, has been appointed organizer. As this conference extends not only over Long Island but also up the Hudson and into Connecticut, there is prospect of excellent results.

INTEREST aroused by the new Assembly at Marinette, Wis., has led to considerable activity in that part of the state, and good results have been felt in the surrounding country from a new Assembly held at Carthage, in southwestern Missouri. Mrs. Shipley reports from Iowa that the outlook is most favorable. The new Assembly near Burlington, Ia., is forming circles in and about that city, and the Des Moines Assembly is conducting an active campaign in the center of the state. Mrs. Shipley reports several rallies in prospect, while the new Assembly at Clarinda in the southwestern part of the state has enrolled a large number of new members from the surrounding territory. Many workers are yet to be heard from, as at this writing it is too early to have definite reports from all.

WE cannot refrain from making special mention of the Placerville Circle, organized three years ago with a membership of about sixty-five. It still maintains its average membership of old members, and if the coming year shows the same enthusiasm as in the past will send us in '98 the largest class to graduate from any circle that has gone from the Pacific coast. All honor to Placerville, and may her example be a stimulant for others to do likewise.

A CIRCLE in Virginia City, Nev., also deserves special mention. Organized in '91, it has maintained its average membership and organization without a break. With the going out of graduates from their circle new members were enrolled, thus keeping up the standard of membership.

BATTLE MOUNTAIN, another Nevada circle, has organized a flourishing circle this year and is doing excellent work.

CONCORD, in Contra Costa County, Cal., with its new circle of eleven members, has an enthusiastic, wide-awake class of readers.

A BRIGHT, enthusiastic circle under the inspiring leadership of Dr. Buckle was organized in Oakland, Cal., this year, and judging from the character of its leader and members we predict the "Century Circle" will faithfully carry out the original design to graduate all its members at the close of the century in the Class of 1900.

PETALUMA and Hollister, old circles, have this year revived and entered with renewed interest, after several years' rest, into active work under the leadership of some of the veterans of the C. L. S. C.

LINCOLN, Templeton, Alameda, "The Central," of San Francisco, "Houghton," of Oakland, and not least, if last, the faithful little band of readers under our co-worker for many years, Rev. H. N. Bevier, are all continuing active work. Other smaller circles, although but few in members, are earnestly striving to gather from the rich storehouse the intellectual feast so bountifully prepared by the national committee.

VALLEJO still holds her place as the first to report in the new year. Not detracting from the substantial work in the regular course of study, their social entertainments and open meetings have been attractive features to their organization.

WE are pleased to note the growing interest and observance of the "Memorial Days." From many of the leading circles have we received programs for their entertainments, which evince talent of rare merit, thus showing that the Chautauqua influence will draw into her circles the best citizens and will become the local center for all that expresses literary culture.

IN the report of Rallying Day in the October CHAUTAUQUAN one pleasant circumstance was accidently omitted. At one of the C. L. S. C. Council meetings just after Rallying Day, one of the delegates present suggested that the delegates of 1897 leave behind them some permanent contribution to the Council Hall, as a pleasant reminder in years to come of the circles represented at this time. It was proposed that the offering be a very small one, a nickel from each being suggested, and the proceeds to be used for a photograph to be selected by a committee composed of Mrs. Mary H. Gardner, of Kansas City, and Miss Kate Kimball, of Buffalo, N. Y. No sooner was the pleasant jingle of the small coins heard than another member of the Council arose and requested that the members who were not delegates be allowed a similar privilege. The suggestion was received with en-

thusiasm, and by another year two beautiful photographs, the gifts of the delegates and non-delegates for 1897, will adorn the walls of the Council Hall.

HOW TO DRAW A CIRCLE.

A CHAUTAUQUA circle, of course, but the adjective doesn't matter. There is one law for circles. First choose a center, then draw about it a line whose gentle curve shall hold at every point a common distance from the point within. A simple thing, but just to do it by the unaided skill of the hand has been the despair of masters of the art of drawing. You and I might take a string and, placing a finger firmly down upon one end to hold the center, carry the other slowly and carefully around. If our center wavered only slightly from its place and if our radius of string held fairly taut and true we should have a tolerable circle.

If you wish to draw a Chautauqua circle there is no other method. First get your center. That center must be the Chautauqua idea, enshrined deep and warm in some earnest heart. If *you* love it and believe in it and have some strength for holding firmly in your place, you will make a good center yourself. The string which brings all points properly into line is the cord of sympathy—that sympathy which desires and hopes the best for all—and these points that range themselves in orderly succession about the center of influence are the people you wish to touch. Do not swell the circle unduly. Keep the diameters short so that looking across is easy. Draw other circles; and remember that there are forces pulling constantly away from the center so that some one is liable now and then to start off on a tangent. But do not be disturbed, only strengthen the center of influence.

Lastly, the way to draw a circle is to draw one; not to wish to do it, nor to intend to do it, but to do it. The world's work is accomplished not by those who wish and intend things, but by those who do them.

MRS. ALMA F. PIATT,
Secretary for the Winfield Assembly.

MASSACHUSETTS.—At Worcester an energetic class of ten carried through the work of last year with good results. Two of the number graduated at South Framingham, and the president, of whom the circle is justly proud, has won seven seals.—— Keep Pace Circle, with its three branches at Waltham, Everett, and Atlantic, continues to be a worthy exponent of its name.

CONNECTICUT.—A remarkable record of "no week without its meeting since the beginning of the class in 1895," comes from Joel Barlow Circle of Redding, and the enterprise with which they manufactured a telescope to aid in their study of astronomy shows them to be Chautauquans of the true type.

NEW YORK.—The New York *Tribune* makes note of the circle at Jamaica as a unique organization, composed entirely of women, except the president, Mr. B. J. Benton, who has held that position since the organization of the circle ten years ago. This club is considered a most important and useful institution of the village and is successful in all its undertakings.

NEW JERSEY.—For two years a class at Newark have studied the history in the course with one other book and THE CHAUTAUQUAN, and are now contemplating studying one of the Half-Hour Courses.

PENNSYLVANIA.—A most important thing in a circle is the regularity of attendance and the class at Ridley Park prides itself on being exceptionally good in this regard.——Circles at York and Philadelphia report progressive work.

MARYLAND.—The beginning and ending of the year's work is pleasantly celebrated by the C. L. S. C. members of Risingsun; in the fall they open their meetings with a banquet and in the spring close with a picnic. The latter was held this year on the banks of the Susquehanna, near its mouth, where intellectual as well as social welfare was abundantly looked after.

KENTUCKY.—Four years' affiliation with the Chautauqua cause has given the circle at Middlesboro a thirst for the work, which they are preparing to take up anew in one of the special seal courses.

MISSISSIPPI.—Three years have been spent by the class at Aberdeen in C. L. S. C. study with a wonderful amount of interest manifested by all the members. One lady who attends the weekly meetings is seventy-six years old; she still keeps in touch with the class and is a wonderful inspiration to them.

OHIO.—On the last of August a basket picnic was the chief attraction of a meeting of the Toledo Alumni Association and their friends at Presque Isle. A delightful program was carried out, after which came a social hour and then the supper, to which all did ample justice.

INDIANA.—A Round Table will be organized this fall at Kokomo.——Montifiore Circle of Peru is composed of members of the Class of '98.

ILLINOIS.—A large telescope was one evening placed at the disposal of about twenty Chautauquans of Mobile, and Venus, the evening star, was viewed with absorbing interest by those present. Jupiter and four of his moons and Mercury were also visible.——"A Trip to England" has found favor with some readers at Danville.

WISCONSIN.—Membership Books are sent to several Chautauquans at Milwaukee.

MINNESOTA.—A class poem by Mrs. Annie Sulzer, of Janesville, is received, which takes us on "evolution's train" from the depths of the earth to the

skies where the constellations play an important part in the passage through the heavens. Space will not permit a publication of the verses, but the author is to be congratulated on her thorough knowledge of astronomy and on her success as poet of the Class of 1897.——Pierian Circle of Stillwater, judging from the programs sent, is in a flourishing condition; such subjects as "An Interplanetary Voyage," "Grecian Art," "College Sports and Pastimes," "Plagiarism: How to Avoid It," are ably discussed in the meetings.——Madelia reports a class of thirty-eight.——The Knowledge Seekers of St. Paul have spent a very instructive and profitable year.

IOWA.—Osceola is fortunate in being the home of two Chautauqua circles. The one consists of ten busy housekeepers of whom two are members of the Bryan Class organized in 1879, and the other class claims twenty younger ladies. Both circles recently united in an open meeting, each member inviting a friend. An appreciative program was rendered, and afterward the names of the states written on slips of paper were given to the gentlemen and their capitals to the ladies; amid a great deal of merriment each state found its capital and all were served to a dainty lunch consisting of pink and white cake and pink ice-cream, these being the class colors.——The first year of the Wild Rose Circle at Sheffield closed satisfactorily. They started in the fall with a poor prospect of securing enough members for a circle, but through perseverance and diligence they enrolled seven members and are now on the road to prosperity.——Rustic Circle, of Gilman, has a class of eight '99's and one '87.——No little work has been done in the regular and special courses by readers in Sheldon.

MISSOURI.—A representative circle of the Class of 1900 is called the Capital City Chautauqua Circle of Jefferson. They are strong in numbers and expect to begin the German-Roman year with enthusiasm.——Last year a circle was organized at St. Louis under the name of the Pilgrim Chautauqua Circle.——Quite a large circle at Lamar finds Chautauqua work an interesting diversion from their other duties.——A member of ten years' standing writes thus of the organization of which he is a member: "The Alpha C. L. S. C., of Marshall, was organized in 1887 with ten readers, since which time it has increased to thirty members, this being the limit, as the meetings are held at the residences of the members and the rooms cannot conveniently accommodate a larger number. During the ten years the circle has not failed to meet twice a month with prepared lessons and programs. The C. L. S. C. is recognized in the community as a perceptible factor in promoting a taste for solid literature."

KANSAS.—The Alumni Association of the Sunflower Circle, Wichita, numbers fifty-three, as recorded on the neat little card giving the program of the annual banquet held early in June. This banquet was an occasion long to be remembered, good cheer and loyalty reigning supreme. The toast list is as follows:

But things seemed right this partic'lar night,
More so than with average folks;
And we filled the air with music to spare,
And complimentary jokes.

MUSIC.

THE RELIGIOUS INFLUENCE OF THE CHAUTAUQUA MOTTOES.

It is a beautiful thing to model a statue and give it life; to mould an intelligence and instill truth therein is still more beautiful.

"ALTER EGO."

Know, then, thyself, presume not God to scan;
The proper study of mankind is man.

OUR GUESTS.

O Hostesses, what know you, whether,
When you suppose to feast men at your table,
You guest God's angels in men's habit hid?

RESPONSES.

Welcome the coming, speed the parting guest.

RECITATION, "THE MARBLE DREAM."

QUARTET.

THE EVOLUTION OF TOM.

You hear that boy laughing? You think he's all fun,
But the angels laugh too at the good he has done;
The children laugh loud as they troop to his call,
And the poor man that knows him laughs loudest of all.

THE CHAUTAUQUA ASSEMBLY.

And what is so rare as a day in June?
Then, if ever, come perfect days;
Then heaven tries the earth if it be in tune,
And over it softly her warm ear lays.

SEALS, WITHOUT ARBITRATION.

Education ends only with life.

"VENI, VIDI, VICI."

Patience, persistence, and power to do are only acquired by work.

MUSIC, "AULD LANG SYNE."

To all, to each a fair good night,
And pleasant dreams and slumbers bright.

NEBRASKA.—To belong to a federation of clubs is often a benefit to an organization, and the circle at Crete has taken the opportunity to become identified with the Woman's Federated Clubs of that city.——The graduation exercises of the circle at Rising City were successfully carried out, the program being interesting and instructive, composed of sketches of Julius Cæsar, Oliver Cromwell, Thomas Jefferson, and Cardinal Richelieu, with reviews of the Roman, English, American, and French natures.

CALIFORNIA. — Seven readers belonging to the Epworth Circle at Los Angeles are full-fledged seniors this year.——Various methods of conducting a circle are presented by the different secretaries; the band of workers at Oakland carry on their meetings in an extremely informal way, having no roll-call or stated program, but a competent leader directs the discussions. Placerville Circle, on the

contrary, has the parts assigned and the program arranged and published in the newspapers, so that the members may thus be informed of their part in the lesson.

OREGON.—At an open meeting of Harmony Circle held recently a praiseworthy program was carried out, giving evidence of an enterprising circle. Some of the subjects were: "Synopsis of Chautauqua Work," "Myths of Greece," "The Chautauqua Woman One Hundred Years Hence," "History and Description of the Telescope." Beside these several pictures were shown.

MONTANA.—Membership Books for the Class of 1900 are forwarded to Livingston.

ARIZONA.—The Wayside Course has several adherents in the circle at Tombstone.

THE SUMMER ASSEMBLIES FOR 1897.

ASHLAND, OREGON. Sermons, lectures, dramatic recitals, and concerts were given to large and appreciative audiences at the Southern Oregon Assembly. Among the entertainers were Dr. A. W. Lamar, Rev. Scott F. Hershey, Miss Jessie Ackerman, Edward Page Gaston, Miss Ida Benfey, Bishop Samuel Fallows, Rev. Charles E. Locke, and Hon. John P. Irish.

In the Round Table meetings there were discussions of literary, sociological, and historical subjects. At the Recognition Day exercises four graduates received diplomas, and addresses were delivered by Rev. Charles Edward Locke and Bishop Samuel Fallows.

Classes were organized in art, music, cooking, elocution, Bible normal work, and W. C. T. U. methods, each of which was conducted by an able instructor.

BEATRICE, NEBRASKA. The tenth annual session of the Beatrice Chautauqua was held June 15–27 and proved to be a year of unusual prosperity. All expenses were fully met and a snug sum left in the treasury. The people of Nebraska are exceedingly brave and courageous. Failure of crops, floods, and disasters of every kind seem not in the least to slacken their ardor.

The class work was exceedingly well attended and proved very helpful to the people. It embraced ten different departments. The C. L. S. C., under the direction of Mrs. L. S. Corey, held daily Round Tables with specially prepared programs. Much interest was awakened in the work and the thought of many people turned toward the course of reading. Recognition Day was an occasion of great interest.

On the lecture platform appeared Dr. E. L. Eaton, Dr. M. M. Parkhurst, Mrs. S. M. Walker, Miss Vandelia Varnum, Herbert A. Sprague, the impersonator, Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Harry Spillman Riggs, Frank R. Roberson, John R. Clarke, Hon. W. J. Bryan, Rev. Sam Small, Prof. W. H. Dana. Prof. C. C. Case had charge of the music. The Slayton Jubilee Singers spent ten days at the Assembly and gave the utmost satisfaction. Mrs. Mary Calhoun Dixon had charge of a grand carnival, which proved to be one of the unique and attractive features of the Assembly. This, with moving pictures and magic and music by Robertson and Ransom, gave pleasing variety to a strong program.

Dr. W. L. Davidson returns next year as the superintendent and will for the eighth time make the program for this growing Assembly.

BETHESDA, OHIO. At the Epworth Park Assembly the classes of the educational department attracted a larger number of students than usual, and never in the history of the Assembly has there been such a large continuous attendance at the general exercises as during the season just past.

One of the special features of the Assembly work was the music, instruction in which was given by Clement B. Shaw, A.M.

Interesting lectures were delivered by Dr. Robert Nourse, Rev. Sam P. Jones, Col. George W. Bain, Prof. A. W. Hawks, and others.

On Recognition Day Dr. George M. Brown was the chief speaker, both forenoon and afternoon. Four readers received diplomas and several joined the Class of 1901. The C. L. S. C. graduates formed an organization of which Mrs. Lucy Faris, of Bellaire, was elected secretary.

CHAUTAUQUA, ILLINOIS. The Piasa Chautauqua Assembly at Chautauqua, Ill., opened July 22. The C. L. S. C. Round Tables continued four days and were much enjoyed. The lectures by the Chautauqua field secretary, Dr. Brown, were just what Chautauquans needed and they were highly appreciated. Recognition Day was observed and one graduate of '97, one of '93, and one of '94 passed through the golden gate and under the arches.

In the afternoon the regular Recognition service was held. The C. L. S. C. songs were sung, the class poem read, and the responsive readings were led in turn by Dr. George, Dr. Corrington, and Rev. Scarritt.

Addresses were made by Drs. Brown, Stewart, and George, and the diplomas presented by Dr. Brown. Sixteen members were added to the Class of 1901.

The Class of 1900 gave an entertainment during the Assembly, and a fund was started for a Hall of Philosophy, which it is hoped will be ready for use at the next Assembly.

CONNECTICUT VALLEY, NORTHAMPTON, MASSACHUSETTS. The eleventh annual session of the Connecticut Valley Chautauqua Assembly was held at Laurel Park July 13–23. It would have been the banner year but for the heavy rains.

The interest in this Chautauqua is developing wonderfully, and under fair conditions the year would have been a remarkable one. Amid all the discouraging conditions all the expenses were met.

George H. Clarke had charge of the C. L. S. C. work and did it well. Many new readers were secured. The daily Round Tables were well attended. The Recognition Day service was conducted in the rain, which failed to dampen the Chautauqua ardor.

Special attention was given to Sunday-school normal work, conducted by Judge L. T. Hitchcock, and the admirable worker Miss Bertha Vella led the children's class. Special days were given to Sunday-school and young people's work. Prof. J. E. Aborn had charge of the music, and Mrs. W. H. Boole of the W. C. T. U. school of methods.

On the lecture platform appeared Harry S. Riggs, Russell H. Conwell, John R. Clarke, Jahu DeWitt Miller, Col. George W. Bain, Bishop C. C. McCabe, Dr. James M. Buckley, Dr. Edgerton D. Young, and others. Music was contributed by the Ottumwa Male Quartet, the Rock Band, and Mme. Cecilia Epping-Housen Bailey. The people were delighted from the first hour to the last with the excellent program. Dr. W. L. Davidson returns as the superintendent for next year.

EAGLES MERE, PENNSYLVANIA. The success of the teachers in creating an interest in educational work has led the management to look forward to the establishment of a broader system of education.

The program of the platform was full and varied. Mr. Hoyt L. Conary gave a series of readings. Professor Morphet showed his skill in the art of magic. Lectures were delivered by Rev. C. F. Aked, Miss Vandelia Varnum, Rev. Ferrer Martyn, Rev. O. A. Wright, Mrs. E. L. Stephens, Dr. Eugene May, and others.

The Assembly was a success in every way in spite of the rainy weather. The social element of the Assembly was not neglected, and that it may be attractive to the different religious denominations the Assembly Association has set apart three or four building lots which will be donated to the denominations desiring to erect headquarters.

FINDLEY'S LAKE, NEW YORK. Two speakers, Dr. Carlos Martyn and Rev. J. Boyd Espy, addressed the Lakeside Assembly on Recognition Day. No graduates were present to receive diplomas, but new members were enrolled in the Class of 1901.

Educational work was provided in the departments of music, elocution, Bible study, and physical culture.

FRYEBURG, MAINE. One of the pleasant social features of the Northern New England Assembly was the daily afternoon tea at which Mrs. Lyman Abbott presided.

For those patrons of the Assembly who wished to pursue educational work instruction was given in Sunday-school work, music, physical culture, botany, photography, shorthand, and typewriting.

At the Round Table meetings ample instruction was given in regard to the C. L. S. C. work, and names were added to the Class of 1901. The program for Recognition Day included an address by Rev. George D. Lindsay on "Books and Reading." This was followed by an alumni dinner, at which several Chautauquans made speeches.

The list of lecturers contains the names of many well-known men. Among them are Mr. Hezekiah Butterworth, Hon. Gorham D. Gilman, Governor Powers and Attorney-General Haines, of Maine, Prof. S. H. Woodbridge, and Mr. D.W. McCrackan.

HIGH BRIDGE, KENTUCKY. The old-time camp-meeting is gradually disappearing and High Bridge, Ky., where formerly one of the best camp-meetings was held, is no exception. The towns in the vicinity are well supplied with churches and faithful pastors, and the necessity for strictly religious camp work no longer exists. In place of this the people demand secular instruction and recreation in congenial surroundings, hence High Bridge is trying to meet this demand.

In the very heart of the famous Blue Grass region at the junction of Dix River with the Kentucky the Assembly grounds are located. The new name is "The Kentucky Palisades." The beautiful grove provides excellent shelter and the altitude assures good fresh air at all times.

The speakers this year were Dr. Talmage, Prof. J. L. Shearer, Rev. B. Fay Mills, and Dr. Oscar Browne, of Knoxville.

The music was provided by the Kentucky Colonels' Quartet. The general Chautauqua features were represented by Professor Shearer, who spoke daily at eleven o'clock. He also delivered six illustrated lectures in the evening.

The plans for the coming year include a more extensive program and the introduction of various educational departments, chief of which may be natural history, botany, and geology. The place affords the best opportunity for such studies.

KANSAS CITY, MISSOURI. The second annual session of the Fairmont Chautauqua Assembly was held June 1–12 and was even more

successful than the first session. The average audiences were very large, while the special days attracted multitudes of people.

The C. L. S. C. work was in charge of Mrs. Mary H. Gardner, who did faithful and splendid service. Many new readers were secured, and Recognition Day, with a large procession of ardent Chautauquans and the graduation of the members of the class present, was a memorable occasion.

Special class work for Sunday-school teachers conducted by Dr. E. L. Eaton, minister's institute conducted by Dr. M. M. Parkhurst, children's work by Mrs. Buxton, chorus work by Prof. C. C. Case, woman's club work, with delightful addresses by Mrs. Mary H. Ford, W. C. T. U. in charge of Miss Ella D. Morris, elocution and physical training conducted by Miss Lydia J. Newcomb, all attracted wide-spread interest.

On the lecture platform appeared Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Rev. Thomas Dixon, Jr., Leon H. Vincent, Dr. W. L. Davidson, Jahu DeWitt Miller, John R. Clarke, Hon. Henry Watterson, and others. Herbert A. Sprague, the impersonator, and Edward Maro, the magician, contributed entertainments in lighter vein. Splendid rallies in the interest of the Epworth League and the Baptist Young People's Union were also held.

The people of Kansas City and surrounding territory are manifesting commendable interest in this enterprise and large plans are being made for next year. Dr. W. L. Davidson continues as the superintendent and seems sanguine as to the success of the future.

LEXINGTON, KENTUCKY. The Kentucky Chautauqua held its tenth annual session in its handsome home, Woodlawn Park, part of the old Henry Clay estate, June 29 to July 9. The average audiences were better than ever before and the session was a financial success.

The Assembly is struggling under a heavy debt, and this year it was thought advisable to refund, if possible, a portion of the amount at a lower rate of interest. On one of the evenings of the Assembly, after an earnest appeal by the popular superintendent, Dr. W. L. Davidson, and Col. George W. Bain, $5,000 was quickly taken by patrons of the Assembly, to be carried at three per cent interest.

No stronger program has ever been presented at the Kentucky Chautauqua. Prof. W. D. McCormick, who was the founder of the Kentucky Chautauqua, was asked this decennial year to return and give a series of literary talks, which he did, to the great delight and satisfaction of everybody. Lectures were also given by Rev. C. F. Aked, of Liverpool, England, John R. Clarke, Gen. John B. Gordon, ex-Gov. John P. St. John, Hon. Henry Watterson, Rev. Thomas Dixon, Jr., Rev. George M. Brown, Frank R. Roberson, Miss Vandelia Varnum, and Judge James M. Greer. Recognition Day was duly observed and much interest awakened in C. L. S. C. work. The Fourth of July celebration and the oratorical contest between representatives of five Kentucky colleges were novel and attractive features of the program. The departments of instruction offered to the patrons of the Assembly were pedagogy, minister's institute, kindergarten, and physical training.

Dr. W. L. Davidson, who has had so much to do with the success of the Kentucky Chautauqua, of course returns again as the superintendent.

MAYSVILLE, MISSOURI. The Maysville Chautauqua Society, an incorporated institution, held its first regular Assembly this year under the new organization. Mr. E. A. Buntin, the president, is one of the leading bankers of the place and Col. H. W. J. Ham, the popular Georgia lecturer, had charge of the program and platform for the present season.

The attendance came principally from the rural districts but far surpassed all expectation in numbers as well as quality. The people were enthusiastic beyond description and regarded the Assembly as one of the greatest blessings, especially since it put aside the old-fashioned picnics that had become so prevalent throughout western Missouri. The platform was well equipped, the principal speakers being Dr. Talmage, Polk Miller, Prof. Charles Lane, Prof. J. L. Shearer, Dr. Byron W. King, Colonel Ham, President Craig of Drake University, Rev. Sam P. Jones, and Rev. Harvey Hatcher of St. Louis. Pryor's Military Band of St. Joseph, Mo., and the Wagner Male Quartet of Grand Rapids, Mich., supplied the music. Prof. J. J. Jelly of Findlay, Ohio, had charge of the chorus.

The C. L. S. C. work was directed by Professor Shearer of Cincinnati. No regular Recognition service was held but the daily Round Table became a source of great interest and assumed an educational form for the purpose of giving the people in attendance a clear idea in regard to the plans and purposes of the Chautauqua movement.

This Assembly has the fairest prospects for the coming season.

MONTEAGLE, TENNESSEE. From the Monteagle Assembly comes the report of a very successful season, notwithstanding the Tennessee Centennial, which caused a decrease in the attendance.

The Assembly schools were conducted by the general manager, Prof. A. P. Bourland, and the superintendent of instruction, J. I. D. Hinds.

Among the leading platform speakers who assisted on the general program were Dr. S. S. Curry, Rev. A. G. Thomas, Goodwall Dickerman, Rev. P. M. Fitzgerald, Mrs. W. F. Crafts, Rev. J. L. Stuart, Prof. C. R. McCall, and Professor Maro.

In the C. L. S. C. department several Round Table meetings were held each week and new names were added to the Class of 1901. Special exercises were held on Recognition Day, at which time Prof. A. P. Bourland delivered an address.

MOUNTAIN LAKE PARK, MARYLAND. For fifteen years this famous mountain resort has been writing a splendid history, and the season just closed has been the best of all. Notwithstanding the much-talked-about hard times and the great outgoing of young people on cheap excursions to California to the Christian Endeavor Convention and to Toronto to the Epworth League Convention, the capacity of the great hotels and the 250 cottages at Mountain Lake Park were taxed to their utmost. Representatives were present from almost every state of the Union, and the large auditorium was so crowded even on ordinary days that plans are now being made for the erection of a new one.

Twenty-five departments of important school work, under the care of instructors out of the leading universities, were well patronized. The advantages here in these lines are unsurpassed. Several hundred students were in attendance in all departments, and the number is increasing annually.

The platform for three weeks was filled with the best things obtainable in lecture, entertainment, and musical lines. Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Rev. Thomas Dixon, Jr., Pres. W. H. Crawford, Dr. A. W. Lamar, Jahu DeWitt Miller, Col. George W. Bain, and Prof. Louis Favour, were among the most prominent. Grand Army Day brought a host of old veterans, Governor Atkinson, of West Virginia, presiding. Judge Farrar, of Richmond, Va., made a speech full of splendid fraternity. An old-time camp-fire, with baked beans, hardtack, and coffee, was a unique and enjoyable feature. A great company of people participated in the Recognition Day services. The decorations were beautiful. Venetian Night on the lake, with illuminated fleet, fireworks, stereopticon views, etc., was a fitting climax to the great program of 1897, which was as strong and enjoyable in every respect as that presented by any Assembly in America.

This Assembly is run on true Chautauqua lines and is destined to become one of the great Chautauqua centers in America. Dr. W. L. Davidson, who has done so much for the growth of this resort, returns for the eighth successive year as its superintendent of instruction and is making great plans for the future.

OCEAN PARK, MAINE. The Round Table meetings at the Eastern New England Chautauqua and Ocean Park Assembly were especially interesting this summer, and no doubt influenced many to identify themselves with the Class of 1901. The Recognition Day address was delivered by Dr. A. P. Gifford. Five passed through the golden gate and received diplomas. An alumni banquet, a grand concert, and an illumination were other pleasant features of the day.

The departments of Bible exposition, oratory, physical culture, kindergarten, children's normal Bible class, and music were ably conducted by earnest and trained teachers.

Interesting lectures were delivered by Prof. F. W. Bancroft, Mrs. S. S. Fessenden, Miss Agnes Leach, Rev. J. E. Rankin, Prof. William R. Brooks, and E. P. Gaston.

Although no special feature of instruction or entertainment marked the session, those who were present pronounce it the best season in the history of the Assembly.

ROCKY MOUNTAIN, COLORADO. At Glen Park, Col., the Rocky Mountain Assembly held a very successful session with an attendance exceeding that of last year.

The program elicited much interest on account of its unusual excellence and varied character. Each of the cities Pueblo, Colorado Springs, and Denver entertained the Assembly one evening. Lectures were delivered by Dr. A. B. Hyde, Edward Page Gaston, Rev. Frank T. Bayley, Chancellor W. F. McDowell, and other prominent orators.

On Recognition Day the eight graduates, attended by the flower girls, passed under the arches and received diplomas. An able address was delivered by Rev. Frank T. Bayley.

For those studiously inclined classes were formed in reading and oratory, physical culture, Bible study, kindergarten, and Sunday-school normal work.

SALEM, NEBRASKA. Never since its organization has the Salem Inter-State Chautauqua Assembly held such an interesting and successful session as this year. There were twelve hundred people in tents, while the daily attendance ranged from four to twelve thousand. Pres. O. W. Davis—who had the entire management of the affair—certainly deserves great credit for having organized and maintained at his own expense this Christian institution in this section of Nebraska, which serves three other states —Iowa, Missouri, and Kansas, as well, rightly earning the name Salem Inter-State Assembly.

Some of the attractions were the lectures by such popular and talented speakers as Dr. T. DeWitt Talmage, Jahu DeWitt Miller, Dr. Sam Small, Helen Gougar, Prof. A. W. Hawks, Prof. Chas. Lane, Prof. Wm. H. Dana, Prof. J. F. Saylor, Hon. Robert W. Richardson, Hon. J. M. Stahl, Dr. Dana, and Rev. A. F. Newell.

The musical part of the program was a most important and pleasing feature of the Assembly. The readings by Thomas Davenport Smith, Miss Gertrude Dodge, and Mrs. Birdie Sprague Waggoner were much enjoyed by the listeners. Editors',

Farmers', Educational, Exposition, and Musical, were some of the special days observed.

The W. C. T. U. held daily meetings during the session, presided over by Mrs. C. M. Woodward, national superintendent of railroad work.

The C. L. S. C. work was given a very prominent place on the program. Vesper Service and Daily Round Table meetings were held and ably conducted by the state secretary, Mrs. L. S. Corey of Lincoln. A large Class of 1901 was formed and much interest awakened, which will undoubtedly result in the organization of many more circles.

TULLY LAKE, NEW YORK. For six years the Central New York Chautauqua Assembly has held an annual session, the attendance this year exceeding that of any previous season.

The Assembly ground, situated on Tully Lake, midway between Buffalo and Albany, is very attractive because of the beauties of nature surrounding it and the improvements the managers make from year to year.

Extensive preparations were made to entertain the patrons of the Assembly. Popular lectures were delivered by John R. Clarke, Hon. Charles S. Fairchild, Mrs. J. M. Wieting, A. W. Hawks, Dr. C. H. Mead, E. N. Packard, Rev. Arthur Copeland, and Rev. Stanley B. Roberts. Every one was much pleased with the concerts given by the Alabama Jubilee Singers, the Vernon Brothers, and the Silver Lake Quartet.

Directors of recognized ability had charge of the educational departments and a broad and comprehensive course was carried out by each. Adella L. Baker conducted the Bible school and normal Sunday-school work. Bertha Morris Smith superintended the school of physical culture and elocution. The W. C. T. U. school of methods was organized and conducted by Mrs. Helen L. Bullock. Elizabeth Snyder Roberts was superintendent of the C. L. S. C. work and Prof. B. C. Richardson was the musical director.

Round Table meetings were held each morning from August 14 to August 27, and many topics relating to education and to the circle work were discussed.

Eight graduates received diplomas on Recognition Day, at which time Dr. J. E. C. Sawyer delivered an able address.

The Class of 1901 received several additions at this Assembly.

WINFIELD, KANSAS. The special features which marked the last session of the Winfield Assembly were the grand chorus conducted by Prof. S. W. Mountz; the lectures on sacred literature by Rev. Herbert L. Willett; the talks on electricity by Prof. L. I. Blake; the lessons in English literature given by Prof. A. H. Tolman; and the C. L. S. C. Round Tables conducted by Mrs. Alma F. Piatt. While each of these departments enrolled many interested students, the work in sacred literature and electricity attracted larger crowds than usual.

At the Round Table meetings there were discussions of practical subjects pertaining to C. L. S. C. work which resulted in the enrollment of seventy members in the Class of 1901.

On Recognition Day there were the procession, the arches, the golden gate, and an address by Superintendent Frank Dyer, of Wichita. Eight diplomas were delivered to graduates. The exercises of the day closed with a grand banquet, in which three hundred Chautauquans participated.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

The Christian. Literary pessimists who have decried the book-making of modern times are now confronted by a work the strength of which they must acknowledge. "The Christian"* is one of the few really powerful novels of the year and it merits the admiration of the entire literary world. There is no complicated plot to distract the reader; it is a simple story of love, in the telling of which the author has made two characters, John Storm and Glory Quayle, stand out in bold relief while portraying the inconsistencies, the injustices, the sins, and the methods of social labor in London. John Storm, a Christian socialist, leaves the little Manx village of Glenfaba to become a London curate and Glory becomes a probationer in the hospital of which he is chaplain. Only a few days of London life have passed when a process of disenchantment begins and the curate suffers "shocks and disappointments" which drive him to the seclusion of an Anglican brotherhood. An awakened conscience and love for Glory bring him from the conventual institution in less than a year to take up the work of a reformer and to protect Glory from the evil influences of London society. But while the process of disillusionment is stirring to its very depths the soul of the curate, there are for Glory the continuous novelty which charms, and bitter experiences from which she comes forth triumphant and in which her ability "to enjoy and to rejoice" are always conspicuous. Though the reader is in deep sympathy with the purpose of John Storm's labors, at the same time doubting the wisdom of his methods,

*The Christian. By Hall Caine. 539 pp. $1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

he is deeply interested in Glory, whom powerful influences are drawing away from him, and one cannot but admire the attribute of character which enabled her, successful and with London at her feet, to give up all for her lover, defeated and just at the point of death. It is a realistic, purposeful work, and from the moment John Storm and Glory Quayle leave Glenfaba to the end of his labor in London the reader is not allowed to forget the intensity of feeling which moves the author, to such an extent does it permeate every page of the story.

The Martian.

The literary labor of George du Maurier closed with "The Martian,"* the life history of Bartholomew Josselin. The style of its telling is that of a biographical sketch written by the most intimate friend of his youth and manhood, Robert Maurice, a prosperous merchant. Bartholomew, or Barty, as he was familiarly called, entered a Paris school in 1847, where his wit, his bright, jovial ways, and his physical beauty at once won the love of his companions. His biographer follows closely the events of his life, depicting in an easy, natural, yet forceful manner the greatness of his subject, whom he portrays as an artist, a musician, and a literary genius endowed with irresistible social qualities. But who or what is the Martian is the query that repeatedly comes to the reader when two hundred pages of mingled French and English have been passed over and no mention is made of her or it. By the exercise of patience and perseverance he will reach that part of the recital in which the Martian's influence is very palpable and in which there is an explanation of the force that produced the versatile genius of Barty Josselin. There is an ingenuousness in the style of the recital that pleases the reader in spite of the too abundant French words and sentences. However, these disadvantages are obviated by the glossary which forms a part of the contents of the book. The many illustrations accompanying the recital are also from the pen of the author.

Other Fiction.

Homely but delicately tender pathos is the distinguishing characteristic of Ella Higginson's tales in a collection called "From the Land of the Snow-Pearls."† The heroism with which people in humble circumstances endure the trials that break the monotony of their existence is vividly portrayed and there is not one of these dozen tales of Puget Sound but that has in it some heart-touching strain.

One is always wishing to know what is occurring in the other world, and this time it is J. Kendrick Bangs who has wielded the magic wand which silences Cerberus and gives us a glimpse into the social life of Pluto's realm.* Charon's old leaky skiff is replaced by a well-equipped house-boat, on which the departed shades of the world's most illustrious men gather for the enjoyment of their club. There were also women whom Charon had ferried across to the spirit world, and the curiosity they still possessed could be satisfied only by the knowledge of what took place on the house-boat. They took possession one day in the absence of the gentlemen, and what afterward happened forms the subject of a second book.† Any one less an artist than this writer would have been unable to create two so humorous productions which would not pall upon the reader's senses before the close.

In a romance of Acadia,‡ by Charles G. D. Roberts, the revengeful hatred of a villainous priest is the cause of numerous exciting events which follow each other in rapid succession. Astuteness and skill made more efficient by love, matched against cunning and treachery, bring about a happy *finale*, after many encounters with Indians. The quaintness of the recital is especially appropriate to the time in which the acts are placed—the eighteenth century—and it holds the attention of the reader to the end.

The rebellion of 1837 in Lower Canada is the historical incident which furnishes action for a short story, "The Pomp of the Lavilettes,"‖ by Gilbert Parker. Bonaventure in the province of Quebec is the scene of fateful events which the author presents very forcefully. The Hon. Tom Ferrol, an Englishman in the last stages of consumption, arrives in the town in time to learn of the rebellious schemes in progress and to prevent the successful termination of the plans. But he does more than this. He insinuates himself into the confidence and affection of several people, a condition which gives the writer an opportunity to portray the passionate devotion of a woman to the one she loves, notwithstanding his moral obliquity.

From the fertile brain of Herbert D. Ward has come the entertaining story of "The Burglar Who Moved Paradise."§ By a little display of audacity the burglar gained entrance into Paradise, and once there he took possession of the field. There is a delightful humor permeating the story, through

*The Martian. By George du Maurier. 481 pp. New York: Harper & Brothers.

†From the Land of the Snow-Pearls. Tales from Puget Sound. By Ella Higginson. 268 pp. $1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

*A House-Boat on the Styx. By J. Kendrick Bangs. Illustrated. 171 pp. $1.25.——† The Pursuit of the House-Boat. By J. Kendrick Bangs. Illustrated by Peter Newell. 204 pp. New York: Harper and Brothers.

‡The Forge in the Forest. By Charles G. D. Roberts 311 pp.——‖ The Pomp of the Lavilettes. By Gilbert Parker. 191 pp. Boston and New York: Lamson, Wolffe, and Company.

§The Burglar Who Moved Paradise. By Herbert D. Ward. 226 pp. $1.25. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

which there come momentary flashes of pure and earnest sentiment.

The love affairs of a quartet of young people is not a new theme in Clara Louise Burnham's novels, but she is able to introduce delicate problems into the plot, the solution of which is followed with interest. In "Miss Archer Archer,"* Bostonians, Philadelphians, and Virginians are thrown together in a natural way in Maine, Washington, and Virginia, and the inherent culture and good breeding of the parties most interested are an adequate excuse for the peaceable and satisfactory adjustment of the slight misunderstandings.

Three types of individuals are faithfully delineated in Kate Douglas Wiggin's story of "Marm Lisa"†: the woman with ideas, who is at home with her family "from seven to eight in the morning and ten-thirty to eleven-thirty in the evening"; poor Marm Lisa, who faithfully watches the children left to her care; and dear Mistress Mary, who had love and patience enough to mother the world. With these characters as principal actors the author has produced an interesting social study.

Religious.

The political, social, and moral development of the Hebrews is the main subject of which the second volume of "History, Prophecy and the Monuments"‡ treats. In a very clear, concise way the author pictures the inner life of the Israelites and gives an instructive account of the Egyptians and Assyrians and their relations to the Hebrews, closing with the fall of Ninevah. The appendix contains numerous explanatory notes.

In "A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age"‖ Professor McGiffert first gives a short but comprehensive account of the origin of the Christian religion. The effect of the resurrection of Christ and the gradual expansion of religious thought away from the primitive Jewish ideas into a broad Gentile religion are carefully set forth. The principles which guided Paul in his work are lucidly discussed, after which follows an account of Paul's work and the growth of the church and a discussion of the Christianity of the "church at large." The work is written in clear, dignified English and forms a valuable addition to the literature on the history of Christianity.

The announcement is made in the prefatory department of John Fletcher Hurst's "History of the Christian Church"* that the work is to be completed in two volumes. The first of the volumes is voluminous and comprehensive, containing an historical account of the church down to the beginning of the Reformation. The Apostolic Age, the Patristic Age, and the Controversial Age are the three periods into which he has divided the history of the ancient church and the period of time between 768 and 1517 is included in the account of the church of the Middle Ages. The generally simple, terse style in which the work is written adds to its attractiveness. A very complete bibliography of literature on church history forms a part of the text and a half-dozen maps are inserted for the student's use.

* Miss Archer Archer. By Clara Louise Burnham. 312 pp. $1.25.——† Marm Lisa. By Kate Douglas Wiggin. 199 pp. $1.00. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

‡ History, Prophecy and the Monuments, or Israel and the Nations. By James Frederick McCurdy, Ph.D., LL.D. Vol. II. 454 pp. $3.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

‖ A History of Christianity in the Apostolic Age. By Arthur Cushman McGiffert, Ph.D., D.D. 672 pp. $2.50 net. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

* History of the Christian Church. By John Fletcher Hurst. Vol. I. 975 pp. $5.00. New York: Eaton & Mains. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

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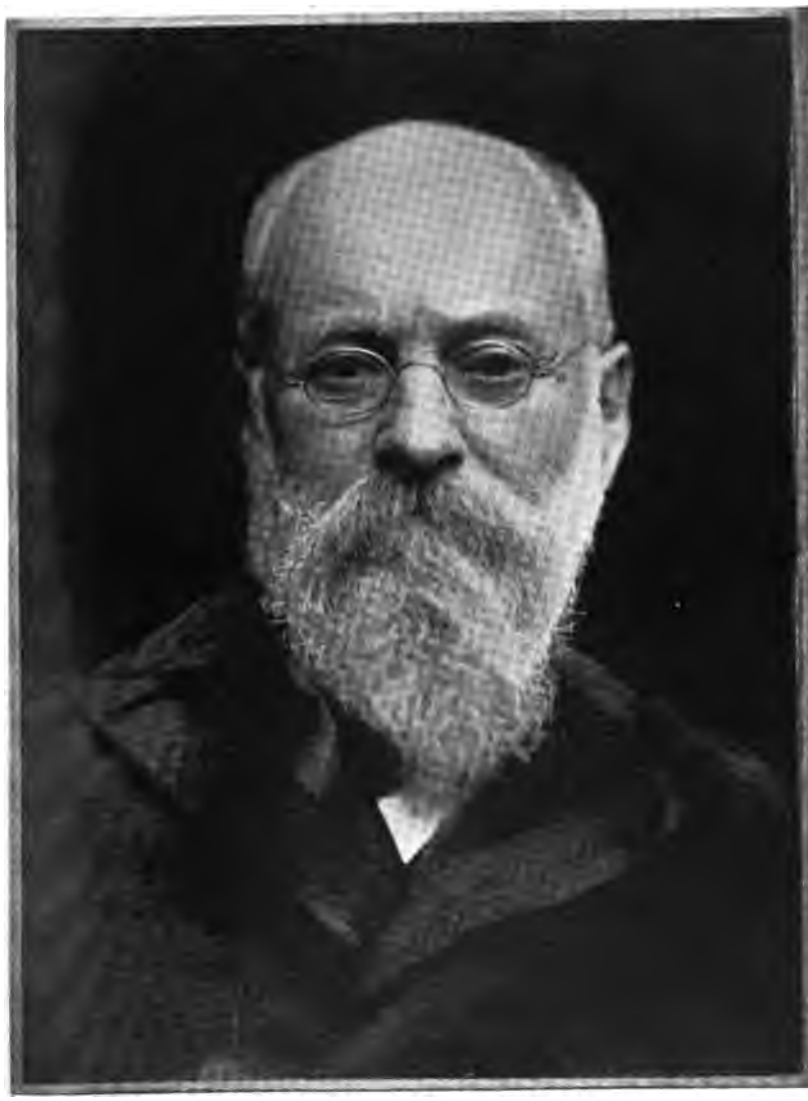

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From the painting by Hofmann.

CHRIST AND THE RICH RULER.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

CHRIST IN ART.*

BY CHARLES MASON FAIRBANKS.

From the painting by Murillo.

THE MIRACLE OF THE LOAVES AND FISHES.

NO pursuit, one might say, could be more unsatisfactory than a striving after the unattainable; and yet for many centuries the greatest artists have been attracted by a no less inspiring undertaking than that of realizing in pigments upon canvas the ideal image of Christ. The utter hopelessness of the task has not deterred them from seeking in the realms of fancy for means to represent the godlike majesty of the Savior of mankind. Some, no doubt, have gone about it with the deliberate and uninspired purpose of the mere painter; others, with loftier motives and a true religious feeling, have striven to attain the high ideal which, I think, we must all still feel has never been fully realized. It would seem to the devout mind that the face and features of him who is the light of the world were as incapable of human representation as is the effulgence of the orb of day. Human limitations in art stop this side of the perfect ideal.

The subject is too vast to be considered with anything like historical completeness in the brief limits of this article. From the rude drawings of the catacombs to the weird tableaux of Doré; from Dürer's powerfully

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

repulsive and realistic representations of the Savior's sufferings to Merson's[1] sentimental compositions; from Guido Reni's[2] ideal in the so-called "Ecce Homo" to the modern materialism of Hofmann, is certainly too broad a field to be covered at a glance.

I suppose that Guido's "Ecce Homo" has had the greatest influence upon the fancy of painters since his time, in establishing what may be accepted as the conventional portrait of Christ, inadequate as it must be admitted to be in the representation of that supernal countenance. It is the Man of Sorrows, but it conveys little of the idea of divinity. The suffering that is depicted is not that of him who died for mankind, but merely that of an Italian model. And yet for three hundred years it has remained in popular acceptance, the counterfeit presentment of the living Christ.

Despite the dramatic, and perhaps meretricious, qualities of Gérôme's[3] "Crucifixion," it would seem to be a more satisfactory method of treating the awful tragedy of Calvary. It will be recalled, perhaps, that the story was told by indirection and the figure of the Savior was suggested only in the shadow of the tree that fell across the Mount of Golgotha. In the distance lay the city, and over it hung the pall of clouds, as the storm approached in which the veil of the temple was rent in twain. The centurions wound around the roadway to the city, two or three stragglers in the foreground looking back upon their bloody work, while through a rift in the clouds, low down on the sky-line, the light of the sun, with its message of resurrection, cast the shadow of the cross along the surface of the hill. There is the whole story of the tragedy, told unmistakably and pathetically; but the sensibilities are not shocked by a gruesome spectacle, as in Dürer's cruelly real representation of the Savior's death. There is no attempt to represent the unpaintable. No devout soul is made to feel that his conception of the face of the Savior has been violated; for it seems to me plain that each one must have, according to his own capacity for exaltation, a mental vision which can never be realized by another's imagination, much less by the image that another might paint.

From the painting by Hofmann.

CHRIST DISPUTING WITH THE DOCTORS.

From the painting by Plockhorst.

THE JOURNEY TO EMMAUS.

Bearing upon this point of the personal and individual conception of the face of the material Son of God, it is curious to observe how rarely the type, as painted, is Jewish. The early Italian painters, who had a knowledge of drawing, naturally portrayed the classical ideal of the perfect man according to Italian standards. Their skill was as much greater than was that of the painters of Cranach's[4] time as was their intellectual conception of their subject. They have given us, therefore, the most acceptable rendition of the scenes of this sacred history. But their Christ was an Italian. He was of a Spanish type among the Spanish painters and of a Dutch type in Holland. Even our modern painters have yielded to these anachronisms. Brown, the Parisian, has even gone so far as to represent him in modern dress, as a French gentleman, and Munkacsy[5] has made of him a Russian peasant.

Of course the earlier works of the time of Cranach are interesting historically alone. They are ugly enough, though perhaps sincere. In so far as they are earnest in purpose and devout in spirit we are justified in paying homage to them, and in joining with the dead-and-gone painters in a worship of

From the painting by Raphael.

THE TRANSFIGURATION.

that divinity which they strove, honestly though vainly, to depict. It is difficult in regard to some of our more modern works of Christian art to satisfy one's self that the spirit of religion was the actuating impulse of the painter. Too often there is a suggestion of the mere effort toward a theatrical effect.

I have in mind a certain extraordinary instance of charlatanism that for months thrived upon the unquestioning spirit of devotion of the community, as an instance of our readiness to accept as sincere and honest that which relates to our most sacred sentiments. A certain Mr. Bentley, an untutored limner, evolving a certain foolish theory as to painting, set about befooling the public with an egregious head of Christ of colossal size. He called it "The Living Christ," and exhibited it in a large hall which was darkened and draped so that the full force of his arrangement of electric lights should fall upon his remarkable canvas. It was a theatrical arrangement and false to even pious sentiment—a mockery and a sacrilege; and yet there was for many weeks a steady pilgrimage of well-meaning persons to this trickster's exhibition hall, who sat in churchly silence, awed into a spirit of worship by this gigantic fraud of a painting.

Historically the church and its traditions provided the earliest artists with their impulses and inspirations. Crude as were their works, they were the expressions of a primitive faith, and all early art was religious in sentiment and expression. The traditions in the life of Christ have been

From the painting by Leonardo da Vinci.

THE LAST SUPPER.

treated by many painters with a certain conventional agreement as to details, either based on Scriptural descriptions or following the earliest formulæ of the imagination. The Nativity, the adoration of the Magi, the flight into Egypt, and Holy Families without number, down to the crucifixion and ascension, have been variously treated through the ages. Where these subjects have been treated poetically and with imagination they have power to inspire in us all, to this day, sentiments of devotion and adoration; where they have been done with regard for realistic details they are usually hideous, and to be tolerated alone for historical reasons.

From the painting by Titian.

THE TRIBUTE MONEY.

As appertaining to the Christmas season, the Nativity is, of course, the incident of the greatest interest. In the earliest pictures this scene was located in a cave, and somewhat later a wooden shed was substituted for the primitive and rocky retreat. Among the spectators an ox and an ass are always included, somewhat incongruously, the one signifying the Jews and the other the Gentiles. Correggio's[6] well-known "Nativity" is perhaps the most familiar example of this phase of the art that represents the Christ-child in a dazzling effulgence of incandescence. In the early ages pictures of this sort, frescoes and paintings, were calculated, as they are to this very day, in certain cathedrals where

From the painting by L. Olivier Merson.

THE REPOSE IN EGYPT.

From the painting by Murillo.

THE ADORATION OF THE SHEPHERDS.

copies of them hang, to excite sentiments of the most abject devotion.

Murillo[7] has painted a greater number of pictures of the infant Christ than perhaps any other of the masters of early times. Indeed it was by little reproductions of the Madonna and Child, painted at Seville in the early years of the seventeenth century for the captains of America-bound vessels, that he made sufficient money to visit Madrid, with an intention of going to Italy. These little canvases were taken to the newly converted inhabitants of Mexico and Peru. "The Immaculate Conception," it is said, Murillo painted as many as twenty-five times. The "Holy Family," too, he painted many times, surrounding its figures with simple domestic accessories. The Christ was always of a Spanish type. His "Adoration of the Shepherds," now in the Vatican, is an admirable work, beautified in the glowing golden browns to which time, no doubt, has added something of richness. "The

DETAIL FROM A "HOLY FAMILY" BY RUBENS.

Miracle of the Loaves and Fishes" is at Seville. One of the most famous of Murillo's works is "The St. Anthony of Padua," in the cathedral at Seville, in which is shown the brown-frocked saint surprised by a visit from the infant Jesus, a beautiful naked child who descends to St. Anthony in a golden glory from among the company of cherubs that fill the glowing atmosphere. The state of ecstatic worship is wonderfully well expressed in the rapturous upturned face of the saint, who kneels with arms outstretched in welcome.

The youthful "Christ and the Tribute Money" (Cristo della Moneta), now in the Dresden Gallery, was painted in about 1514. It is beautiful in the flesh tints of the face of the Savior and in the rendering of the hair and beard. There is a certain majesty in the expression of Christ, as he turns to answer the cunning Pharisee who is questioning him about the tribute money. Titian's[8] "Assumption of the Virgin" was perhaps the greatest of his religious paintings, but it must be confessed that his voluptuous tastes were more in sympathy with such subjects as portrayed beautiful women.

Raphael's "Transfiguration" is justly world-renowned. Familiar as it is to us in engravings, no copy can fitly portray the heavenly expression of the Savior's upturned face. It is in the Vatican at Rome and was the last unfinished achievement of his life. It is one of the finest pictures in the world. The scene of the transfiguration, in the upper part of the painting, is in Raphael's own hand, and its peculiar charm is in the marvelous expression of the face of Christ. The lower and larger part of the canvas was left unfinished by the master and completed by Giulio Romano.[9] It is, in fact, two pictures, the lower one representing on one hand the disciples and on the other the multitude bearing a boy possessed of a devil. It is explained that the lower painting represents the miseries of human life, while pointing attention to the Superior Power above, in realms of divine brightness and bliss.

"The Last Supper" has been painted in all languages, as one might say. The circumstances are essentially dramatic. The earliest instance, so far as I know, is an embroidery of the eighth century, now in the Vatican. The representations of this scene are always the same so far as concerns the essential details. The Savior is shown as distributing or blessing the elements that are to this day the features of the communion table. Judas, like the latter-day Iago, is always differentiated from the apostles, with whom he may be seated and apart from whom he may be represented, "ugly and venomous," as Shakespeare says of the toad.

The glory of the life of Leonardo da Vinci[10] was his famous painting of "The Last Supper," which has now unfortunately fallen into decay. Da Vinci represented the highest type of the intellect and cultivation of the sixteenth century in Italy. His genius was varied and for all time. In this splendid work the dramatic moment is chosen when Christ announces his approaching betrayal, and the disciples are represented as variously expressing their grief and consternation. The head of Christ has become almost a type of divinity. It expresses more satisfactorily than any other painting the dignity, majesty, greatness, and resignation of the Savior. The figures are larger than life, painted on the walls of the refectory in the old Santa Maria della Grazia at Milan. It is done in oil, in fugitive pigments, and damp and decay have destroyed its color and it is falling to pieces. Jesus sits in the middle with the twelve disciples on either hand at a long table on which a light repast is spread. The accessories are simple but the draperies are finely arranged. The several disciples, expressing, each according to his nature, astonishment or horror at the Savior's announcement of his betrayal, are wonderfully varied in individual character. It has been said of this masterpiece that it is the most successful effort of Christian art. Raffaelle Morghen's[11] splendid engraving of this beautiful picture is only less famous than the fresco itself, and has put a very satisfactory interpretation of the original within reach of lovers of Christian art in all lands.

The sufferings of Christ, the procession to Calvary, the supreme agony, have been too often attempted, but never, I may venture to say, adequately. In fact all attempts to portray the holy passion are as futile as those that attempt to give us an ideal of the head of Christ. The crucifixion, the immortal tragedy, has naturally invited the chief efforts of the artists. For my own part I cannot fancy a perfect pictorial representation of this scene. It seems to me that Gérôme, in the painting to which I have already alluded, has treated the matter more wisely than those earlier masters who undertake to depict the agony by material means and simulated circumstance. No picture of the murder on the Mount of Calvary could be satisfactory in its representation to the Christian; no such scene is within the range of artistic representation. In picturing the descent from the cross and the entombment, scenes which provided frequent subjects for the brush, of course the aim of the painter is to express the Savior's love for mankind which underlay and outlined the agony, but our minds are more impressed by the torture depicted. The incidents "upon that first of Christmas days," the birth of Christ, the adoration of the Magi—the beautiful ideal which Raphael has left to us and to all time—these appeal to us at this season of the Nativity by their beauty as well as by their lofty and sound sentiment.

Of the more modern painters of sacred art few have been able to impress us as did these masters of old. Holman Hunt's[17] "Light of the World," representing the Savior, lantern in hand, knocking at the door, has a certain intellectual significance, but it is mannered in affectation of the pre-Raphaelites. His "Christ in the Temple" created a sensation when it was first shown in London in 1860, but it does not excite emotion nowadays. The youthful Christ, sad-faced and anxious, standing among the rabbis, appears to give small thought to the Virgin who bends to embrace him. The work is full of unimportant and unpicturesque detail and is wholly lacking in any expression of inspiration. A more dramatic composition is "The Shadow of Death," which represents Christ as the carpenter, who, rising from his day's labor in the shop of Joseph, stretches his arms wearily, casting thus in the slanting evening sun a shadow of the cross upon the opposite wall.

The fault with our modern paintings of scenes in the life of the Savior appears to be an absence of the religious sentiment. They are too often merely painter-like, beautiful in execution, lovely in color, fine in the matter of graceful drawing and composition, but done by painters who for the most part are devoid of any deeper feelings than those of the material means of expressing themselves in pigments. Brushwork is not feeling, a color sense is not of a kind with religious emotion, and skill in composition and drawing are not in themselves of more consequence than is a natural gift of elocution to a pulpit orator.

The "Sistine Madonna" of Raphael, now in the Dresden Gallery, is perhaps the loveliest of the examples of Christian art. In it is expressed the spirit of adoration. "The Transfiguration," by the same artist, may be classed with it as among the half-dozen works that have had the greatest influence on the religious art and the religious sentiment of all times. Leonardo da Vinci's "Last Supper," Titian's "Assumption of the Virgin," Correggio's "Nativity," Michael Angelo's "Last Judgment," the "Immaculate Conception" of Murillo, and "The Descent from the Cross" by Rubens[18] are other works whose fame has been justified by time and whose influence in uplifting the souls of the devout has been world-wide.

A STUDY OF SCHILLER.

BY JOSEPH FORSTER.

NO man should be better known to lovers of literature than Schiller. Carlyle's biography of him was so excellent that Goethe translated it into German. The versions of "Wallenstein" and the magnificent "Piccolomini" by Coleridge are entirely worthy of the great originals. Then Bulwer Lytton's rendering of the fascinating and noble poems is admirable. Schiller's enthusiasm, his purity of mind, his ever-aspiring love of all that was great in nature, art, and human nature, make his works, especially in this age of cheap, shallow cynicism, unspeakably precious.

Goethe's greatness, his many-sided genius, his universal and profound knowledge of the darkest and most awful depths of human passion, create a feeling of almost awe in the student; but the sunny radiance, the love that glows and pulses through Schiller's "Don Carlos," "The Maid of Orleans," "Wallenstein," and, greatest of all, "William Tell," make the reader not only admire but love, with a keen personal affection, the splendid genius who created them.

Schiller was born in Würtemberg, on November 10, 1759—a few months after Robert Burns and ten years after the greatest and most universal man of modern times, Goethe, with whom he was to be united by loving bonds of friendship. Schiller's father had been a surgeon in the Bavarian army, and was at the time of the poet's birth employed by the Duke of Würtemberg to superintend his pleasure grounds and plantations. Schiller's parents were good and intelligent, and he owed his noble, honest, truth-loving character to them.

The Duke of Würtemberg had founded a free seminary for the sons of his military officers, and, as he had great esteem for the Schillers, he invited the parents to send Frederick there. The school was at Stuttgart, and to it the boy was sent, in 1773, at the age of fourteen. The discipline there was terribly severe. The rules were iron; everything was done to make the boys into mere unthinking and unfeeling machines. All individuality was crushed; there was no play for character, for free will, for the display of any special features of mind and heart. No pleasure, no relaxation, no free intercourse between the boys was permitted. Drill, drill, drill, and task, task, task, was the dreary plan.

Now Frederick was a born poet, and therefore emotional and imaginative in the highest degree. It was like breaking a butterfly on the wheel. But although he suffered supremely, he conquered himself and studied hard and well, preserving, with Spartan courage, a calm exterior. Still there is no doubt that this hard discipline, just at the time, too, when the heart of a boy is most eager to open itself to congenial friends and to all that is bright, joyous, and beautiful in life, produced the retiring manner and rather awkward shyness which characterized Schiller in after life.

In 1775 he ceased to study law and turned his attention to medicine. Schiller disliked both, but of the two he hated medicine the least. At about this time he first read Shakespeare, Plutarch, Klopstock, and Lessing, with a burning, all-absorbing enthusiasm. Soon after that he read Goethe's "Götz von Berlichingen," and the passionate admiration it evoked in his mind, and, indeed, in all minds in Germany, turned his attention to the drama. The result of his reading and suffering was that he wrote his first play, "Cosmo von Medicis," some parts of which he used for "The Robbers." He penned a great many little things, afterward found among his papers. But in spite of his passionate love of poetry he pursued his serious studies with iron resolution.

"Duty first and pleasure after" was the

golden rule of Schiller. He was not a favorite with his narrow-minded, pedantic masters, and was considered by them to be an unprofitable, discontented, and disobedient youth. The publication, however, of "The Robbers" gained him the attention of the reading world. It was Schiller's intensely passionate protest against the cruel, crushing, conventional thraldom to which he had been subjected so long. The protest was in proportion to the provocation. Had not the sensitive nature of the young poet been wounded to the quick, he could not have hurled such a red-hot defiance at all the world thinks respectable and decent. Schiller commenced this astonishing and daring play when only nineteen. It is the product of a powerful but untrained mind. It is exaggerated, even grotesque; but what volcanic power, what passion, what genius it displays!

Karl von Moor is the creation of a young, enthusiastic poet. He is handsome, clever, fascinating, but without a vestige of prudence. Amelia, the only woman in the play, is a beautiful creation, but not a being of mortal flesh and blood. She, of course, loves Karl with enthusiasm. This is how she expresses her passion for him:

> He sails on troubled seas—Amelia's love sails with him; he wanders in pathless deserts—Amelia's love makes the burning sand grow green beneath him, and the stunted shrubs to blossom; the South scorches his bare head, his feet are pinched by the northern snow, stormy hail beats round his temples—Amelia's love rocks him to sleep in the storm; seas and hills and horizons are between us, but souls escape from their clay prisons, and meet in the paradise of love!

No woman made for human nature's daily food talks like that, fortunately. But Schiller himself was the first to admit the extravagance of this play, which, with all its faults, shows there was real poetical fiber in the writer's soul. I think a young poet should be exuberant; the time for pruning comes later, when sad experience brings sober judgment to cut and curtail what, as a youth, he thought very fine indeed. As Schiller wisely said, he presumed to delineate men two years before he had met one. Power can be fashioned into beauty and coherence; but want of power ——?

The publication of "The Robbers" offended the Duke of Würtemberg and his courtiers. Schiller finished the play in 1778, but did not dare to publish it until he had completed his medical studies. In 1780 he obtained the position of surgeon to the regiment Augé, in the Würtemberg army. This appointment enabled him to print "The Robbers" at his own expense. Schiller was summoned to appear before the grand duke, who was not only indignant at the bold opinions expressed in the play but scandalized at its want of literary polish and ability. The duke was good enough to condescend to offer assistance to Schiller in removing the literary blots in the play, but, I regret to say, the poet did not acknowledge the proposal with adequate gratitude. This naturally annoyed his highness, who commanded Schiller to confine himself to his profession of surgeon, or, if he must write poetry, not to publish it without submitting it first to his criticism.

Schiller was twenty-three when he left Stuttgart, where dark threats against his liberty, and even life, filled the air. He said: "I went empty away—empty in purse and hope."

He was invited to stay with Madame von Wolzogen, who knew him by his works and his intimacy with her sons, his former schoolfellows at Stuttgart. The world owes much to that kind-hearted lady. Under her hospitable roof the sorely tried poet was able to collect his thoughts and energies and brace his mind and heart to continue the battle against indifference and stupidity. Schiller was not the man to repine and whine; he could suffer and be strong in silence.

Within a year after his flight from Stuttgart he produced two fine plays, "Love and Intrigue" and "Fiesco." Both these productions show a great superiority to "The Robbers." The genius of the man was growing from year to year, and developing with the mastery of passion and thought so nobly and triumphantly displayed in "Wallenstein" and "William Tell." There is

the same enthusiasm in the two plays referred to as in "The Robbers," the same ideally beautiful and perfect, and, therefore, unnatural heroines; but the exaggeration is less. There are beautiful, pure thoughts; there are fine indications of philosophical discrimination, soon to ripen into finer and more perfect work. The production of these three plays closes the first part of Schiller's literary life. The fiery "storm and stress" period was ended.

In September, 1783, he went to Mannheim as poet to the theater. This appointment fulfilled the hope of Schiller's heart and gave him a position of independence. He could now pursue his intellectual labors calmly and undisturbed; and that was all the lofty-souled poet asked of man. He had his daily bread assured; he had peace, liberty, hope, which are always sweet, but especially sweet to Schiller, by whom they were enjoyed for the first time. He said:

All my connections are now dissolved. The public is now all to me, my study, my sovereign, my confidant. To the public alone I henceforth belong; before this, and no other tribunal, will I place myself; this alone do I reverence and fear. Something majestic hovers before me as I determine now to wear no other fetters but the sentence of the world, to appeal to no other throne but the soul of man!

Schiller never faltered in living up to the height of that lofty resolution.

In 1786 he published "Don Carlos," one of the noblest of his works. It is an immense advance on his three former plays. It is pervaded by a lofty, enthusiastic love for humanity; it is philosophical and profound; and it is exquisitely beautiful in idea and sentiment. Schiller was now master of his mind and heart. What he thought, he could clearly express in beautiful, many-colored, glittering words. Contrast the cold-blooded, unloving and unloved, miserable, because suspicious, despot Philip II. with the self-contained, the noble and fearless Posa. How the bigoted, cruel tyrant seems to shrivel up before the unselfish and exalted eloquence of Posa, which almost sends a feeble pulse of life through the dead heart of Philip. Posa's life is in his soul, which neither death nor Philip can touch.

In this noble play, which glows with a splendid but balanced enthusiasm, Schiller puts into the mouth of Posa the following words, instinct with pathetic wisdom:

Tell him, Don Carlos, that when he is a man he must reverence the dreams of his youth.

Three years after "Don Carlos" appeared the Bastile fell. In 1787 Schiller visited Weimar, the most memorable event of his life. He was not then introduced to Goethe, but Herder and Wieland gave him a hearty greeting. Wieland was then the Nestor of German literary men. Schiller reverenced him as a father. He said: "We shall have bright hours: Wieland is still young when he loves." Yes, the heart of a good and wise man is never old; it is capable of love to its last pulsation. Weimar delighted Schiller so much that he thought of settling there. He writes:

You know the men of whom Germany is proud —a Herder, a Wieland, with their brethren; and one wall now encloses me and them. What excellencies are in Weimar! In this city, at least in this territory, I mean to settle for life, and at length once more to get a country.

After some months' stay at Weimar he received a cordial invitation from his friend Madame von Wolzogen to visit her at Bauerbach. During his journey there he met, at Rudolstadt, a new friend, Fraulein Lengefeld, whose attractions made him sorry to leave the place. Next year he returned, and lived in the neighborhood from May to December, visiting the Lengefeld family every day. The following are Schiller's views on marriage:

To be united to a person that shares our sorrows and our joys, that responds to our feelings, that molds herself so pliantly, so closely to our humors; reposing on her calm and warm affection, to relax our spirit from a thousand distractions, a thousand wild wishes and tumultuous passions; to dream away all the bitterness of fortune in the bosom of domestic enjoyment—this is the true delight of life.

Schiller loved Fraulein Lengefeld and his love was returned. This was the happiest time of his life. His plays were admired, he was surrounded by congenial friends, and now the love of a charming woman crowned his happiness.

Schiller's greatest friend was to be the intellectual giant Goethe. No two men could possibly differ more than these two. Goethe was ten years older than Schiller, the former being at the time of their meeting thirty-nine. Goethe was a philosopher, a poet, and, in addition, a consummate man of the world, accustomed to hold his own with distinction in the most polished and courtly society. Schiller, as I have already said, was shy and awkward, and did not show to advantage in mixed society. The mere idea of meeting the great man made Schiller nervous.

This is his own account of the impression made on him by his first introduction to Goethe:

On the whole, this personal meeting has not at all diminished the idea, great as it was, which I had previously formed of Goethe, but I doubt whether we shall ever come into any close communication with each other. Much that still interests me has already had its epoch with him. His whole nature is, from its very origin, otherwise constituted than mine; his world is not my world; our modes of conceiving things appear to be essentially different. From such a combination no secure, substantial intimacy can result. Time will try.

Time did try, and made them friends. At first Goethe thought as unfavorably of Schiller as the latter did of him, but, as the world knows, all this smoke of prejudice disappeared, and they became helpful friends and fellow laborers in the mighty field of literature.

In 1789 Schiller became professor of history at Jena. In the February following his arrival there he married Fraulein Lengefeld. The following is Schiller's delightful picture of that happy union:

Life is quite a different thing by the side of a beloved wife than when forsaken and alone, even in summer. Beautiful nature! I now for the first time fully enjoy it, live in it. The world again clothes itself around me in poetic forms; old feelings are again awakened in my breast. What a life I am leading here! I look with a glad mind around me; my heart finds a perennial contentment without it; my spirit, so fine, so refreshing a nourishment. My existence is settled in harmonious composure; not strained and impassioned, but peaceful and clear. I look to my future destiny with a cheerful heart.

As professor of history Schiller's taste for historical study was intensified. His "Revolt of the Netherlands" is full of noble thoughts; his burning love of liberty pervades every page. But I cannot stop to analyze it, and must pass on to "Wallenstein," a work of mature and enormous power. The gloomy, concentrated, war-worn Wallenstein, reading his fate, or trying to do so, in the distant stars; the lovely, the exquisite Thekla, so pure, so exalted, so utterly unselfish; and then the noble Max, living on great thoughts and breaking himself in pieces against the adamantine rock of selfishness and cruelty—all these great creations, wrought out with absolute perfection of art, make the "Wallenstein" plays unique in modern dramatic literature.

The love of Thekla and Max, in the midst of all the cruelty of ambition and the hideous brutality of war, reminds one of a pure, sweet flower blooming on the side of a volcano ready to burst in lurid flame at any moment; and it does burst into flame and all-devouring lava, and the tender, perfumed petals are consumed.

Thekla is the daughter of the ambitious, fate-ridden Wallenstein. He is so consumed by pride that he defies the emperor. Max Piccolomini is sent with troops to conduct Thekla to her father's camp. The two meet and love with a deep, devoted passion, stronger than death. The ambitious father has other and higher views for his daughter. Max loves and venerates Wallenstein with boyish enthusiasm as a superior, god-like being. Max's father is sent to wrest the command from the unscrupulous Wallenstein. He is a cold-blooded diplomatist, and when Max learns his purpose he revolts and quarrels with his father.

Wallenstein is surrounded by enemies and traitors who plot to accomplish his assassination. "The Death of Wallenstein" is sublime in its gloomy power. A sense of impending woe and horror pervades every scene. The soliloquy in which the doomed Wallenstein communes with the stars and tries to tear their secret from them is one of the masterpieces of literature.

Poor Max, with despair at what he sees of

fallen human nature, all his cherished ideals dashed to pieces, rushes out at the head of his cavalry and is killed. Broken-hearted, loving Thekla goes to find Max's dead body.

Thekla. His spirit calls me: 'tis the troop
Of his true followers who offered themselves to avenge his death; and they accuse me
Of an ignoble loitering—*they* would not
Forsake their leader, even in his death—they died for him.
But shall I live?—
For me, too, was that laurel garland twined
That decks his bier. Life is an empty casket:
I throw it from me. Oh, my only hope;
To die beneath the hoofs of trampling steeds—
That is the lot of heroes upon earth!

With this speech Thekla disappears from the scene, but never from the heart of the reader.

Of "William Tell," his last and greatest work, "Joan of Arc," "The Bride of Messina," and "Mary Stuart" I can now say nothing more. One poem of his must be mentioned, "Pegasus in Harness," in which, with a master hand, he paints the never-ending struggle of the poetical, sensitive, enthusiastic temperament, in its combat with the hard, dry, selfish, matter-of-fact —or in appearance matter-of-fact—world. What renders this poem more remarkable is the presence in it of a decided vein of powerful, grim humor.

"The Cranes of Ibycus," the greatest and noblest poem by Schiller, in which there is an elevation and majesty which commands the interest of the most superficial reader, has a very interesting history. In the first sketch of the ballad only one crane flew over Ibycus when he was murdered in the depths of the lonely wood. Goethe suggested that there should be a long line of cranes, resembling in some degree the long and awful pageant of the avenging Furies. Schiller perceived at once the beauty and grandeur of the idea and adopted it. In fact, the cranes were the companions of Ibycus in his journey. Both poet and birds were traveling in a foreign land; the cranes were blessed with wings. This sublime poem is, therefore, the beautiful result, one of many, of the friendship of Goethe and Schiller, and is altogether worthy of its noble origin.

"Whom the gods love die young." Raphael, Mozart, and Schiller belong to a band of Heaven's peculiar favorites. They are lent to this little, peddling world for a time; but Heaven soon resumes the gift it so bounteously bestowed. The King of Terrors struck no chill to the lofty soul of Schiller. His life was in his heart and intellect; his body and its claims were trifling to him. His death, which occurred on May 9, 1805, like his life, was calm and beautiful. Of his friends and family he took a touching farewell. He ordered that his funeral should be plain and simple, with no pomp, no display. When asked how he felt, he said, "Calmer and calmer." Later he sank into a deep sleep. When he awoke he said, "Many things are growing clear and plain to me." Again he closed his eyes; and his sleep deepened and deepened until it merged into the sleep of death.

WINTER BIRD-LIFE.

BY FRANK M. CHAPMAN.

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THE comparative advantages of ornithology as a field study are more evident during a northern winter than at any other season. Insects are now dormant, and the myriad of forms snugly encased in cocoon, chrysalis, and cell give no sign of life. Not a single tree-toad or hyla can be heard, giving evidence that one of his tribe has survived winter's frosts. Flowers there are none, and one can scarcely believe that the brown stalks rising above the snow ever bore blossoms. All but the coniferous trees are leafless, and the bare, gaunt branches toss desolately in

the wind. The hand of death would seem to have been laid on the face of nature were it not for the birds. They are the only living things to be seen. Are their active, graceful forms and cheery notes ever more welcome? Was there ever a winter day so gloomy that it was not brightened by the tinkling chorus of a flock of tree sparrows? Do not the juncos twittering cosily in our evergreens express a feeling of contentment which in some way we share with them? Even the hoarse caw of the crow has a clarion ring. Our hearts go out to anything alive, and the bird that in June might have passed unnoticed is now an object of special interest.

At this time, too, the apparent frailness of birds appeals to us. How can the tiny kinglet, with a body no larger than a hickory-nut, keep the fires of life burning before wintry blasts that chill us through our furs? Where does the chickadee find refuge when blizzards are raging? Temperature, however, is of far less importance than food. Given a supply of nourishment, birds seem able to withstand the most intense cold. The character of our winter bird-life, therefore, is dependent upon the food supply. Among land birds we have hawks and owls, who feed upon small mammals and birds, woodpeckers, creepers, nuthatches, kinglets, and chickadees, whose food consists largely of insects' eggs and larvæ, sparrows and finches, who are seed-eaters, the nut-eating blue jay and omnivorous crow, while the presence of the berry-eating waxwing, bluebird, and robin depends upon the season's supply of food.

The identification of these winter birds being the chief purpose of this paper, let us attempt it by roughly grouping them according to their more prominent characteristics of size, color, and habits. Primarily we may divide them into two groups, in the first of which we will place those the size of a bob-white or larger, that is, having a length of ten inches or more. Here belong, with the bob-white, the ruffed grouse, hawks and owls, the blue jay, crow, shrike, and robin. These birds are so unlike that no further subdivision of them seems necessary.

Sportsmen, epicures, and the bird's cheery whistle have made bob-white one of our best-known birds. As the most northern representative of a family which has its center of abundance in subtropical regions, bob-white is more susceptible to the rigors of a northern winter than more truly boreal birds. Being eminently terrestrial, heavy snows sometimes completely bury bevies of birds, roosting, as is their wont, on the ground. They seem, however, none the worse for a living interment and have even been known to seek shelter in a snowbank, diving into it while in full flight. It is when a fall of snow is heavily crusted that bob-white is in danger. Escape from beneath his snowy coverlid is then impossible, and whole flocks have been found frozen where they had roosted.

Ruffed grouse are more northern birds than bob-whites, our species, commonly known as the partridge, being the most southern representative of a group or subfamily which is distributed throughout the northern parts of both hemispheres. They are therefore more hardy than bob-whites, and their habit of roosting in trees prevents their being snowed in. In the fall, grouse develop horny lateral fringes on their toes which doubtless serve the purpose of snow-shoes. In the spring these comb-like pectinations are lost—a singular instance of seasonal adaptation of structure.

Hawks are so wary that, as a rule, they can be satisfactorily identified only after one has learned their distinguishing marks by the examinations of specimens, and they may therefore be omitted from this brief sketch.

Owls, during the day, are generally observed by chance. Occasionally their sworn foes, the crows, betray their presence by a clamorous attack. But if one would look for a barred owl with fair chances of success, let him search the ground beneath some densely foliaged evergreen for the "pellets" of hair and bones which all owls disgorge. Once seen he may be easily recognized by his barred, dark brown and white back, striped under parts, absence of ear-tufts, and black eyes. His loud *whoo-whoo-whoo, who-whoo, to-whoo-ah* is not to

be mistaken for the call of any other species, but is not often heard during the winter.

The hollow limb of an old apple tree is the screech owl's favorite winter abode, or he may take possession of some snug nook about our dwellings, living there for years without our knowing of his presence. His small size—length nine and a half inches—and prominent ear-tufts distinguish him, but his low, tremulous, and to my ear musical whistle would surely never be called a "screech" by an unprejudiced listener. Both these owls feed largely on mice and insects and are therefore to be ranked as useful species.

Crows are not the owls' only enemies. Blue jays also never lose an opportunity to mob an owl when they discover his retreat. In any event it is always worth while to investigate the cause of an outcry among the jays; even if we fail to find it we shall be repaid by watching the jays themselves. Singularly human-like are these handsome blue and white crested birds, with vocabularies which seem exhaustless. They appear to find an especial pleasure in mimicing the cries of hawks, always, in my experience, selecting the species most common in the region.

Many birds that are far from social during the summer are eminently gregarious throughout the winter. Crows never nest in colonies, but their winter roosts may be frequented by two or three hundred thousand birds who have repaired to the same place for many years. In the morning they radiate over the country, flying low in search of food; in the afternoon we see them high in the air, returning directly to the roost "as the crow flies."

The shrike and robin close our list of common birds ten or more inches in length. The former cannot be called a common bird in the accepted sense of the word, but his habits and the absence of vegetation render him conspicuous. He generally chooses some exposed perch from which, hawk-like, he can watch for prey. Small birds and meadow mice are his victims and he often impales them on a thorn or hangs them by the neck in a suitable crotch. The shrike is ten inches long, gray or brown above, wings and tail black marked with white, under parts generally finely barred with black, bill hooked and hawk-like.

Robins are irregular winter visitants as far north as southern Canada, the question of food most actively regulating their movements. In sheltered localities where cedar, dogwood, or viburnum berries abound small numbers are reasonably sure to be present.

This brings us to the birds less than ten inches in length.

The birds in this group may be placed in two sections, in the first of which we will include those having white or gray more or less conspicuous in the plumage of the upper parts or tail, as the downy and hairy woodpeckers, white-breasted nuthatch, chickadee, horned lark, snowflake, and junco.

On a winter morning when one has been vainly listening for some sign of life, what a welcome sound is the tapping of a woodpecker! Doubtless it is a downy excavating his breakfast of larvæ, and we follow his tap–tapping just for the satisfaction of seeing the black and white fellow at work; or he may be repairing his winter quarters, for he fashions a home in which to pass the colder months as well as one in which to nest. The male has a red band across the nape; in the female this mark is white.

The hairy woodpecker is as a rule less common than the downy in the Eastern States. He may be known chiefly by his larger size, the downy measuring six and three fourths inches in length while the hairy is about two and a half inches longer.

With the downy we may often find associated, in the winter, another climbing bird, the white-breasted nuthatch. Seen creeping over tree trunks, he has at first glance the appearance of a woodpecker, but closer observation will show that he differs in many points, the most striking of which is that he climbs downward as well as upward and that he does not use his tail as a support. The tail-feathers, therefore, instead of being stiffened and pointed at the end are soft and rounded. The white-breast's mode of progression, black cap, blue-gray back, white cheeks, and characteristic note of

yank yank combine to render his identification both easy and certain.

If one finds the downy and white-breast in partnership it is quite probable that a third member of the firm is the chickadee. During the winter these three birds seem to have something in common which draws them together. Perhaps it may be a feeling of loneliness which prompts them to seek each other's companionship. However, they seem to be on the best of terms, and one of the pleasant experiences of a mid-winter stroll is to encounter this trio. The chickadee will doubtless announce himself in perfectly intelligible English, and to the usual *chick-a-dee* notes he may add further remarks whose meaning is less clear, or even whistle a brief tune of two melodious notes. If he should be silent, which is far from likely, he may be known by his black cap, gray back, and whitish under parts.

These are birds of the woods, and one might imagine that all our smaller winter birds would live in or near some growth which would afford them protection; but the horned lark and snowflake are at home on wide plains or the open country near the sea. They are found in flocks and are not infrequently associated, and although abundant in favorable localities are rare or entirely wanting in others. Both are eminently terrestrial birds, rarely if ever alighting on anything higher than a fence. The horned lark, or shore lark, is about seven and three quarters inches long, sandy brown above, throat pale yellow, abdomen white, a band across the breast, cheek stripes, and two small tufts or "horns" on either side of the head black, tail black, the outer feathers white.

The snowflake, or snow-bunting, is about an inch smaller and is much whiter than the shore lark, hence the name white snowbird, which is often applied to it. It comes late in the season and is not often found south of the latitude of Long Island.

Of all our winter birds doubtless juncos and tree sparrows are the most abundant. The former arrives from the north late in September and remains until May; the latter comes in October and stays until April. Although termed winter visitors, they are with us, therefore, half the year. Juncos, or snowbirds, are usually found in the vicinity of evergreens, in which they pass the nights. Their happy twitter and contented *chew-chew* as they rest cosily in their snug quarters are among the cheery sounds of winter. Juncos are about six and a quarter inches in length, slate-gray with a white abdomen and white outer tail-feathers, which show conspicuously in flight.

The second section of the group containing birds less than ten inches in length includes those in which white or gray is not conspicuous in the plumage of the upper parts or tail. The members of this section are the tree sparrow, song sparrow, winter wren, brown creeper, golden-crowned kinglet, purple finch, goldfinch, crossbill, redpoll, waxwing, and bluebird.

Tree sparrows seem even more social than the juncos. Their favorite winter resorts are weedy fields which furnish them with a supply of seeds. The good done by granivorous birds in winter in devouring the seeds of noxious weeds can be appreciated on reading the estimate of Professor Beal, of the Department of Agriculture, that in Iowa tree sparrows consume 875 tons of weed seeds during the winter season.

When feeding, tree sparrows maintain a pleasing conversational twitter in which one can often distinguish the words "too-late, too-late"; but their tardiness, if such it is, seems to cause them no regret, for merrier birds one cannot find. They are about the size of the junco, striped above with reddish brown, grayish, and black, with white under parts and in the center of the breast a single dusky spot.

As the tree sparrow or winter chippy replaces our common chippy in the winter, so the winter wren appears just as our summer house wren departs. He is smaller than the house wren, with a shorter tail, and prefers some old wood-pile or brush-heap in the woods to the handsome residence in some bird-house his cousin has recently vacated. His small size, activity, and erected tail render him easily distinguishable. His call is a rather nasal *chimp, chimp*, which

suggests the song sparrow's characteristic note, but is uttered more quickly.

This sparrow may sometimes be found inhabiting the wren's brushy retreat, and it also frequents dense hedge-rows. It is a permanent resident from New England southward and is cherished by all lovers of bird music as the first songster of spring. Even warm days in January tempt it to voice its emotions in song, and by March 1 it may be heard in numbers. A black spot on the center of the breast, formed by the confluence of some of the numerous spots of the under parts, is a characteristic marking. The back is striped with reddish brown and black, and in size the bird agrees with the junco.

Some difficulty may be experienced in finding the brown creeper, but, once seen, its identification is certain. Its brown and black striped back harmonizes so closely with the bark of trees over which it climbs in search of insects' eggs and larvæ, and its squeaky notes are so weak, that the bird may easily escape observation.

The call-note of the golden-crowned kinglet is even more insignificant than that of the creeper, being a fine, high, squeaky chirp, practically inaudible to all but trained ears. The bird is exceedingly tame and one may approach it closely enough to see clearly its gold, orange, and black crown.

Birds' names are often misleading, and he who during the winter expects to find a goldfinch wearing a yellow costume will look for this bird in vain. At this season the males are clad in the duller plumage of the female, being yellowish olive above and soiled whitish below. Both sexes are now usually associated in small flocks and aside from their color may be known by their sweet chirping calls and bounding, undulating flight.

The purple finch is even less appropriately named. The so-called "purple" is a dull red approximating the popular idea of "crushed strawberry," and at the best is worn only by adult males. The young males and females are streaked with brownish and grayish above and are white streaked with brownish below. This species has a fondness for the buds of trees, and when perching is conspicuous on these leafless branches. When on the wing it utters a characteristic creaking note.

The crossbill and redpoll, however, may fairly claim descriptive and applicable titles. The former has the tips of the mandibles crossed, an apparent abnormality which is, nevertheless, of real service to the bird in extracting the seeds from pine cones. The latter has, in any plumage, a bright red crown-cap and in adult males this color appears on the breast, the rest of the body being striped with black. In habits the redpolls resemble to some extent both goldfinches and purple finches.

Adult male crossbills also have red in their plumage, being dull blood color, but young males and females are greenish. So closely do they adhere to a diet of pine seeds that they are seldom seen far from coniferous trees. Both crossbills and redpolls are of irregular occurrence in winter, sometimes coming in large numbers and at others being rare or wholly absent. As a rule they do not venture much south of southern New England, though in mountainous districts crossbills are known to nest as far south as South Carolina.

Our list closes with the waxwing and bluebird, summer birds whose presence in winter north of the latitude of New York City is more or less dependent upon the season's food supply. The waxwing is brown, with a yellow band across the end of the tail, a conspicuous crest, and, usually, singular sealing-wax-like tips at the ends of the shorter wing-feathers. The bluebird receives an adequate description in its name.

There are other birds which the experienced field student may discover during the winter, but the beginner will find that the ones mentioned here will furnish him with abundant occupation for the season, and the chances are that before he is on speaking terms with them spring will have brought a list of newcomers.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

ORPAH AND RUTH.

And Orpah kissed her mother-in-law: but Ruth clave to her.—*Ruth i. 14.*

[*December 5.*]

THIS is the introduction to one of the most delightful pastorals to be found in any language, a poem in everything save meter, and with the charm of an antique simplicity, with a pictorial vividness and a home-telling power of truthfulness to nature, to which neither rhythm nor rime could add a grain of sense or eloquence. Thanks for this book of Ruth, set in the midst of the Old Testament like a jewel within a rim of gold, small as a gem, but as bright as a gem, and as clean-cut and clear-polished as ever left the workshop of a poetical lapidary! Generally, in reading the books of the Old Testament, we see but little of the inner life of the people. There is a screen of political events which shuts it out from us, except at a few occasional points, where we can peep through some narrow loophole and get a few glimpses. But here in this small book there is no jealous lattice-work in the window, and the eye can settle itself unforbidden upon all the little domestic and social economies which are elsewhere curtained round with privacy. Our present purpose requires, however, only the outlines of the first part of the story.

There was a famine in the land of Israel, and it bore hard upon the sons of Ephraim in Bethlehem-Judah, and Elimelech, probably a man advanced in years and not undistinguished in his family and kinship, went into the country of Moab, taking with him his wife and two sons. The Moabites, as you know, idolatrous as they were, were blood connections of the Israelites, and held a rich and prosperous territory across the Jordan. They were often at war with the Israelites, and yet they seem never to have quite forgotten the bond of consanguinity, and they often gave a hospitable welcome to their neighbors and kinsmen in times of pressure and calamity. To the fertile valleys and the multitudinous flocks of Moab, Elimelech fled from the jaws of famine.

There is no significance in Elimelech's journey, though there is great significance in its terminus among the old enemies of Israel, and we may believe that only a hard necessity would have driven him thither. We are told how the family remained in Moab ten years. Elimelech died there; and then the sons married there, and they too died there, and Naomi was left alone with her two daughters-in-law. This triple affliction of the poor widow seems to have been regarded by her as a judgment from God, as if she believed that God had thus punished her family for entering into even a temporary compact with a race of uncircumcised heathen. "The hand of the Lord," she exclaims, "hath gone out against me!" and she resolves to return to her own country and end her days in the shadow of Jehovah's sanctuary.

[*December 12.*]

Now comes the artless discussion with her two daughters-in-law in which we see so beautifully brought out the traits of two diverse characters—one commonplace, without a tone which surpasses the average female character, the other touched with a powerful hand, exalted to the very ideal of feminine grace and feminine faithfulness, and finished with one of those rare strokes of conspiring genius and felicitous art which make a picture immortal. Naomi evidently shrinks from the thought of taking her Moabitish daughters into the land of her fathers, though this shrinking is by no means so strong as to show itself on the surface of her mournful pleading with them. On the contrary, she seems only concerned, with a true mother's

self-renouncing affection, for their welfare. Her heart has learned to build itself upon their love, and she yearns for their companionship.

Probably, in this household of Israel, they have left off their idolatrous practices, and suffered their old religion to drop into a slumberous, inarticulate passiveness; but it is plain they have yet gone no further than this, and have made no open renunciation of the gods of Moab, or any profession of faith in the Jehovah of their husbands and their mother-in-law. They are come now to the crisis in their history, and just as, when a man is halting between two opinions, his decision is often reached, not by the royal road of reason and argument and reflection, but by some short cut of emotion, affection, or sympathy, so for these two daughters everything hangs upon the impromptu response which love has to make to the noble and self-denying woman whose tears are refuting the broken voice which bids them leave her. Only one of them has hesitated at all. She sees her mother's tears, but she has a keener sense of her mother's words. She seems quite willing to be persuaded, and at length goes up to her mother and kisses her, and turns her back upon her forever.

Not so with the other; she stands as if rooted to her place, and when Naomi, in tenderly sad and disconsolate words, says to her, "Thy sister-in-law is gone back unto her people and unto her gods; return thou unto thy sister-in-law," Ruth breaks out with her impassioned yet steadily deliberate vow: "Whither thou goest, I will go; where thou lodgest, I will lodge; thy people shall be my people, and thy God my God; where thou diest will I die, and there will I be buried. The Lord do so to me, and more also, if aught but death part thee and me."

In spite of the three thousand years which have piled their dust and ashes over this brave daughter of Moab, the mother of kings and the star-gleam of a line of glory that rose and flashed over the plains to Bethlehem, the winds have not swept her words away. Passion has been speaking since in all tongues, love has been pouring itself in song and in dirge, human tenderness has wreathed itself with the choicest garlands of eloquence; yet the world has not found, the heart has not answered so sweet a spirit, wrapped in such a power of graceful and compelling language, as that which breathes and flames in these words of Ruth. We can tell when we are in mid-ocean by the color of the water, and we can tell by the intense coloring of this speech what depths of faith and loyalty and love lay in the character of Ruth. Worthy was she, thrice worthy, to become the remote mother of our Lord and Savior, and to set up for us, back in the dim centuries, a radiant image of love, never eclipsed save when her mighty descendant after the flesh was lifted upon the cross.

[*December 19.*]

BUT I ask you now to examine the contrast between the two characters presented to us in this narrative, and to judge whether there be not something instructive here which we may learn.

In the first sister we have the impersonation of what we shall call the sentiment of habit and attachment, which passes everywhere, in characters like hers, under the name of love, but which is in very truth not love, but the mere sentiment of it, the difference between the two being just the difference between a coal of fire and a lucifer match, out of which you can get a fire only by friction. Blow upon your live coal and it blushes out redder and redder and waxes hotter and hotter; blow upon your lucifer and it goes out into darkness. Sentiment of any kind is a thin gloss which lies on the surface of feeling like a varnish; it does not go beyond the senses, it does not strike through the interior tissues and color its way down to the heart. It comes in from without, from circumstances, from education, from the daily phases of life—a mere motion of the soul which takes up and repeats the motion of the world around it, and which looks like deep, genuine feeling, just as water in the Croton reservoir looks like water from a living spring. And, alas! how much mere Croton water there is in the

channels of human nature and of society; how much semblance of feeling that proves only disguised affectation; how much show of sympathy that vanishes like the glittering gossamers of the morning; how much shallow love that evaporates into idle profession, and ends only in a kiss like Orpah's!

And I remark, in the first place, that the mere sentiment of love goes no further than a kiss. It throws itself on the lips. It warms itself in the eye. It learns from use and custom alone how to play on the keys of passion and produce some weak but imposing imitation of the genuine music of the heart. There is no muscle in such love; it is all nerve, and, like every other feeling which has no conductor but the nerves, it thrills only in spasms, and is a thing of times and seasons.

Can you not find examples in the sons and daughters and brothers and sisters of many a household? Can you not find them in the members of the church, in those whose affection, sometimes flaring up like a well-shaken torch, is yet as intermittent as the light of a firefly, and needs a continual puff of fresh air and a constant brushing away of dead cinders to keep it alive? Ask such love for a kiss, and you will get it, but ask it for that profound, sustained sympathy which the thirsty soul craves at times, and goes searching for like a well in the desert, and you find it not. When the daily tide in the household runs on smoothly, and there is no strain on the old cables of habit and duty, it is easy for son or daughter to pay the whole exterior homage of love; but let the way grow rough, and life be jostled and jarred with cares and anxieties and worries, then comes the test of affection—then does all feeling that merely simulates love give its last kiss and turn away forever.

And when I look into the homes of poverty, hard, grinding, coarse, sordid poverty, where the children of toil pick their scant bread from their own bones and eat it not alone in the sweat of their foreheads but in bitter heart-sweat—when I look there I do not wonder I see so little love, but that I find so much that puts to shame the polished egotism that usurps the name of love in so many higher places. For the poor have wounds which no kisses can heal. They live in an atmosphere that chokes and strangles all sentiment and all superficiality of romantic feeling; and if love springs up with that envelope around it I know that it must be, not a sentiment of love, but a religion of love, pure as God's highest ether and deep as man's largest capacity. And I remark, in the second place, that no mere sentiment of love is able to stand before the rush of trial and the stumbling-blocks of difficulty. We want sinews to do that, not nerves alone.

Probably Naomi, before she called up her children to take her leave of them, knew no difference between them in their attachment to her; Orpah was as Ruth. But the difference came out when the poor widow, in the candor of her own affection, set herself on one side and interest on the other, and asked her daughters to choose between the two. Then was the time for Ruth to speak out, and then was the time when Orpah sank into silence and all the sweets of her love expired in a kiss.

When a gallant warrior lay dying on the field in the arms of his son, seeing the enemy in the distance approaching the spot where he lay he bade his son leave him and seek safety in flight; but when his son appeared but too eager to take his advice the father cried out, "Will you leave me, my son? Must I die here alone?" How many hearts have sent up that mournful cry when misfortune and sorrow and trouble have thrown them on the field and left them there to perish!—hearts of forsaken mothers and fathers, hearts of abandoned friends, hearts of Christian brothers from whom every face of sympathy, every hand of help has withdrawn itself; and under the cloud of adversity, in the thick smoke of life's dangerous battle, how rare is the human love that stands fast by the fallen and throws its arms around the sufferer, and out of the rich fulness, and with the quiet promptitude of a resolute and unterrified heart, exclaims with Ruth, "Where thou goest I will go, and where thou diest will I die."

[*December 26.*]

AND if trial and peril and tribulation came to all of us, what swaths of desolation they would leave among us—what windrows of dead branches, what heartless farewell kisses, as the sole remains of that empty sentiment which hides itself in a gauzy ostentation of love! I remark, finally, that the great difference between the mere sentiment of love and a vital, deeply earnest, devoted affection is one which religion only can explain.

I do not deny that there is ardent, clinging, deathless love, which knows little of a true religion; there is a pure, soft humanity of love, which gathers up into one bundle of fibers all that is strongest in the passionate instincts of our nature, while yet it has not a single string in it that can awake a note of those higher strains which breathe over life the music of the spheres, and wed our hearts together in a symphony sublimer than man's earthly passions can ever know. I do not deny the existence of such a love, but it touches us only around a segment of our being; it is too narrow to take us in the whole sweep of our existence and our destiny. It is only the vox humana in the organ; it is only the flower on the stalk; it is the love of joyous smiles and April showers of tears; a love for life, not for death—for the blooming hours and the flitting shadows, not for the dark, deep, voiceless night of trouble and affliction. It is a love that leaves out the soul, and, with all its fragrance and its beauty, has no healing in it for man's sharpest aches and sternest needs —those that meet him when he is called to leave his household idols—and all that an unreligious love can give him is a poor kiss upon his dying lips. Between this and a love which draws to itself all the elements of religion there is that distinction which you may see between Orpah and Ruth.

Even the names of those sisters are suggestive of this distinction. The one is Orpah, "young vitality, youthful freshness," and the other is Ruth, "friend of God," hinting to us the contrast which exists between the uncertainty and inconstancy of the most vigorous human powers and the steadfastness of a heart which is stayed on God. Could Orpah have said everything else, there was one thing she could not say, "Thy God shall be my God"; and therefore she turned again to her idols. And if mere human love gets its tenderest beauty, and its broadest scope, and its most unswerving loyalty from religion, I ask how there can be any true love for religion, for Christ, for the church, where the essential facts of religion are wanting? And this touches the case of many an unconverted man, who stands to-day, like Orpah, divided between his old gods and his old friends and the divine call to a Christian life.

There is a sentiment in favor of Jesus, but it is too weak to take up the cross of self-denial. There is a genuine emotion that feels all the solemnity of the choice which the sinner is called to make, and sometimes rises and glows almost to the white heat of decision. There is a surge of penitent feeling which sweeps over the heart at the remembrance of the past, and almost breaks away at times the dikes of pride, and shame, and selfishness that constrain it. It would be strange if men did not have such moments of tumultuous feeling, when conscience kindles thought and eternity bends its awful frown upon the sinner.

But there is no virtue in all this. Let no such man flatter himself that he comes nearer the kingdom because his sentiments are in favor of it. Let no Orpah delude herself into the belief that she is true and faithful because she seals her profession with a kiss. It is not a feeling toward God that brings the sinner to the cross, but a feeling from God, and that is a grace which only repentance and self-renunciation can bring. There is no true love for Christ that does not spring from Christ; there is no affection for the church which does not cling to the church, and plant itself within it. There is no loyalty to our brethren which does not carry us into the midst of them, with our hands ready to work, our hearts beating with sympathy, and our tongues prompt to declare, like Ruth, "The Lord do so to me, and more also, if aught but death part thee and me."—*Rev. P. B. Haughwout, A. M.*

THE TREND OF AMERICAN COMMERCE.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

IN the century and a quarter of its existence the United States of America has become the greatest agricultural nation of the world; and, what is less generally recognized, it has become the greatest manufacturing nation of the world. Nine years ago the distinguished English statistician, Mulhall, said that the value of our annual manufactures placed us not only at the head of industrial nations, but so far ahead that we had only to increase our annual output one fourth to make it worth double the annual product of Great Britain, our nearest competitor. Thirty years ago we supplied the world with only one seventh of its coal while Great Britain contributed one half of the product. For five years past we have produced one third of the total coal supply and Great Britain's output barely exceeds that of the United States. American pig iron has been exported to England because cheaper than the product of Great Britain's own smelters. We produce an eighth more iron and a quarter more steel than Great Britain, and it is one of our greatest industrial victories that we have wrested from that country the distinction it enjoyed of being the fountainhead of the world's iron and steel supply.

The United States surpasses all other countries also in the production of gold and silver. One of our copper mines produces a tenth of the world's entire supply and this country furnishes over half of the total copper product. Most of the petroleum of the world is produced in this country, the Russian product, large as it is, hardly entering into competition with it in the general markets. Our colossal agricultural development has enabled us to become the largest dependence of great nations that are not able to raise food enough for their needs. We have been so preeminent as food exporters that we have been called a nation of agriculturists to distinguish us from the nations where manufactures predominate; and the reason is not far to seek why, in our foreign commerce, we have supplied the world chiefly with food products and raw materials and have lagged behind the leading European nations in the value of the manufactures we have spread abroad.

Our country, in the past ten decades, has been very busy developing its vast sources of natural wealth. Nearly all the lines of progress have been simultaneously advanced. Our agricultural progress has been no more rapid than our manufacturing growth, but this industrial development, remarkable as it has been, has not kept pace with the abnormal increase in our population. The number of our people was quadrupled in the first fifty years after 1790 and it has more than doubled in the past thirty years, and we are a people who spend more *per capita* for houses, food, and clothing than any other nation in the world. So it happens that, with a net value of manufactured products of four and a half billions a year, we are not yet able to make nearly all the things our own people require, and have to import large quantities of the manufactures of other nations. The time is not far distant when we shall be able to supply the home demand, in most respects, from our own shops and factories. Hitherto we have had all we could do in turning raw material into manufactured products for home consumption, and this work alone has brought us into the lead of manufacturing countries.

This is one reason why we have not sought wide foreign fields for our manufactures. Then, too, for most of our national life our industries have been highly protected, with the result that our manufactures have been greatly stimulated, and the higher wages we have paid to industrial workers have enabled them to maintain a

higher standard of living. This national policy has, however, decreased our ability to compete in the world's markets with the manufactures of other nations where lower wages and lower standards of living prevail. Under these circumstances it is fortunate that we have not, in a broad sense, cared to compete with other nations in the field of foreign commerce; that we have had our hands full attending to our own development and supplying our own needs with home-made commodities.

The time has come at last when the United States is able to turn its attention to securing its due share of foreign commerce. Our population is no longer increasing with colossal strides, but the era of prosperity now dawning is certain to give our vast manufacturing interests renewed impetus. We see no prospect before us that we shall reach the condition of those European countries which have been scrambling for new lands in all the corners of the earth because they must have export trade or perish. Our cotton, provisions, wheat, mineral oils, and cattle, of which we now export about $2,000,000 worth a day, will probably continue to be the chief elements of our foreign trade. Our internal commerce may always far exceed our foreign trade. Our own coasting and lake trade to-day is more than double the coasting trade of Great Britain, and far surpasses the external and internal commerce of most other countries. The United States is its own best customer for manufactured products and always will be. But we are making more and more things that foreign nations want and which we can sell in spite of the fiercest competition. So our merchants are beginning to reach out in all directions for foreign markets in which to sell our manufactures; and no one thing has stimulated the quest for foreign fields of profit more largely than the reports from our consuls on commercial opportunities and conditions abroad, which are issued monthly by the Bureau of Statistics of the Department of State.

It is impossible here to enumerate the many ways in which our resources, ingenuity, and inventions are enabling us, at last, to send many manufactures even into industrial Europe to compete with its home wares. We can only mention as illustrations that to-day no one can make iron and steel more cheaply than we do; that our edged tools, much of our machinery used in industrial processes, and many other inventions are widely preferred to those of other countries; and certain improvements in our methods of cotton manufacturing have overcome the vaunted advantage of England's moist climate, enabling her to produce the best woolen yarn in the world. The rivalry for Russia's trade is most significant, for it shows that Germany, the most energetic and successful trader of Europe at this time, regards us as her most formidable competitor in the Russian field.

Russia is now a most important field for any manufacturing country that can get into it. There are 94,000,000 souls in European Russia and one of their greatest needs is tools and machinery which they cannot make themselves and must needs buy elsewhere. When Russia's railroads, now building, are completed, when cotton manufacturing is further developed and the plains of Siberia and the metalliferous mountain regions are more accessible, Russia's needs, particularly for iron and steel products, will enrich the nations that supply them. Germany's special aim at present is to supply that country with agricultural and other machinery, and her economic writers are urging that special efforts be made to overcome the powerful and advancing American competition.

Superiority of products, or products adapted in one way or another to meet the taste and demand of a large public, will make their way in spite of high tariffs. German merchants have sought in vain to create a demand for the refined petroleum of Russia and Galicia, and keep out the American product. The effort has been a complete failure because the German people firmly believe that the European petroleum cannot compare, as an illuminant, with our oil. This was a futile attempt, by artificial pressure and restriction,

to force trade into unnatural channels. Our consuls are constantly telling manufacturers that if they can meet foreign demand with superior American products they will have no difficulty in selling their goods in any part of Europe. The most promising sign of the coming extension of our export trade is that not a few of our manufacturers and exporters are beginning a scientific study of the needs and demands of the customers they are seeking. They are finding that the whole subject of the export trade, even to the packing of goods, requires the most painstaking study. They cannot pack commodities for many Latin-American ports, for instance, as they would were they shipping to Chicago. Wharves are a rarity in those southern ports; vessels anchor at a distance and are lightered by small boats plunging through the surf, and packages not covered by water-proof wrappings are liable to damage. Our merchants are finding that even the color and design of labels are a matter of importance if their goods are intended for the Chinese market, and shoe manufacturers are learning that the goods they sell here are not exactly adapted for the Australian trade.

It is with our iron, steel, and woods, turned into various forms of machinery and implements, that we are beginning to tempt European trade. It is a fact worth noting when our tailors' shears are sold in Sheffield, the head-center of all manufactures of edged tools. Some of England's best colonies, like New Zealand, are now declaring that they prefer our edged implements to those of British make. We have sold our pig iron in England; and Russia, great as her iron resources are, is still importing more than half of the pig iron she uses. There was something akin to consternation in the English midlands, early this year, when American-made steel billets were delivered there at $2.50 a ton cheaper than the lowest British price; and in this month of October, 1897, we have underbid the British makers, who wish to supply Glasgow with cast-iron pipes, by $5 a ton, and we'll pay the freight.

But we can never hope to compete with Europe, in her home market, on the thousand and one things she produces at almost starvation wages. American manufacturers have no such ambition, for it would be futile, and they can see in Europe opportunities in larger lines that are really worth while. See Russia with her 5,000,000 cotton spindles, her 350,000 acres in Central Asia now growing cotton, her 5,000,000 acres there that are adapted for cotton raising, and her lands in Caucasia already yielding 22,000,000 pounds of that staple a year. Russia is now consuming in her mills a tenth of all the cotton produced in Europe and America. She wants to compete with England in her cotton manufactures, and to do so she needs the gins, pickers, cards, and other cotton machinery that have been successfully used in the United States. "By some one," writes our consul, "these things must be supplied." And it is only in such manufactures and by the aid of such inventions as these that we can hope to do a large business with Europe outside of the food staples and mineral products we send her.

We are sending to the miners of South Africa a large part of the machinery they are using. The awakening Orient also will give us our full share of opportunity. China, with her era of railroad building just dawning, and Japan, with the remarkable changes occurring there, will be closely watched for new trade openings. The people of Japan have hitherto been clothed in cottons imported from India. To-day they are beginning to wear woolens, and wool is being imported to supply the mills they are erecting. It has long been said that when a Japanese once acquires a taste for the food of the western nations he cannot do without it. The common people who have lived almost exclusively on rice and fish are now taking to meat. Fathers who can afford to do so give their children meat once a day. The new Japanese line of steamers that has begun to ply to Australia expects to carry many cattle from that continent to Japan. The Japanese cavalry horses have been decided to be too small for military purposes and the attempt to

improve the breed has practically failed. Our consuls are calling attention to these opportunities to send horses, meat, and wool to Japan; and they add that Japan's small territory and 40,000,000 people make it practically certain that her trade demands for the necessities of life will outrun her productive capacity and that the United States will have a splendid opening in that field.

Among our most brilliant opportunities are those our own part of the world affords, and we are moving with energy and wisdom to occupy fully the vast field, a part of which is at our very doors. The Bureau of American Republics and the other agencies that have been set on foot, largely through its inspiration, are among the best schemes ever devised for promoting trade. We are already selling British Honduras nearly twice as much as she imports from the mother country. We have knit ourselves closely to Mexico by railroads and steamship lines and are supplying half of her imports and receiving three fourths of her exports; and yet we continue to pay Mexico in money for sixty-five per cent of the products she sends us because she long ago acquired the habit of sending to Europe for her imports. The development of communications with Central America is also giving us a great advantage in trade. Three years ago Great Britain supplied most of the commodities imported by Costa Rica, but now we have outstripped the British manufacturers. The West Indian colonies of Great Britain are in a large measure dependent upon this country for the necessities of life, purchasing about $10,000,000 worth of our food supplies and manufactures every year and paying for them in their products. These facts show how the proximity of these countries has aided the development of our trade relations with them.

We have not the same geographical advantage on the Atlantic seaboard of South America, for most of that coast is nearer to the Old World than to our own Atlantic seaboard. Pernambuco, Brazil, for instance, is hardly farther from Southampton, England, than from New York City. So along the thousands of miles of coast-line south of Venezuela Europe can trade as cheaply as we can, as far as the cost of transportation affects the price of commodities; and Great Britain has the advantage of large vested interests in the South American countries and long-established and well-rooted trade relations. Our merchants in the South American trade firmly believe that the concerted and vigorous efforts now making in this country will overcome the advantages that Europe has secured and give us a large part of that trade. The Bureau of American Republics, by promoting a closer association of the Latin-American countries with one another and with the United States, and by collecting and distributing information of practical value to all concerned, is assisting in a marked degree to increase the volume of business between our country and the republics south of us.

In some respects all the trading nations may emulate Germany's example with advantage. No country ever sprang in so short a time to the front rank in foreign commerce as Germany has done. The excellence of her technical schools, where methods of metal working and other industrial processes are taught, her permanent exhibitions of the commodities entering into her export and import trade, her expeditions of experts sent to foreign fields to promote German trade and learn all facts that will profit her exporters, her careful study of the peculiarities and demands of her customers, and the avidity with which she seeks new customers, are most important elements in the progress she has made; and some of her people are not above resorting to devices that are unfair even in rivals. Much as she wants our raw materials and food supplies, her Agrarian party circulates the boldest slanders as to their quality. Germany needs these commodities from us, but she is doing her level best to keep out all our manufactures which she thinks she can herself provide.

In this last respect we seem certainly destined to follow Germany's example; for

the trend of American industrial effort will be, first and foremost, in the direction of supplying to our own millions everything they desire within the limit of our manifold resources. The day is coming when most of the cotton that now goes to Liverpool or Moscow will not leave our southern states until New Orleans, Mobile, Charleston, and other cities have it ready to export in the form of manufactured goods. Even with our present population, there is still large room for expanding our home trade and great opportunities for reducing our volume of imports by the improvement of our own processes and results, so that we shall not think of buying abroad what we can procure just as well at home. Our manufactures are now predominating over agriculture. As in Germany, our towns are now gaining population at the expense of the country, and very many of our products for home consumption and for export are going to be cheapened in price by improved methods and practicable economies that will satisfy capital with the profit it reaps while furnishing commodities at lower cost; just as refined petroleum is now supplied to the consumer at a fraction of its former price because pipe-lines and other great improvements have made it possible.

England can count the years when her coal supply will be exhausted. Long before that day comes we can supply the world with all the coal it wants, and all the iron and steel. Improvements in ocean carriage are annihilating time and distance. We are no longer far removed from the great marts abroad. Within two years American-built ships have made it possible to lay the laces of Calais on the shelves of Chicago shops in ten days. It has been done and better will follow.

Another potent influence that will stimulate our foreign trade is to be the rehabilitation of our ocean shipping. Many reasons have been given for the decline of our merchant marine, but the chief reason is because our capital found so much profitable employment in the development of our country that it had no time or inducement to compete with Europe for the domain of the oceans. But our railroad system and the other greatest features of our industrial development are at last unsurpassed or unequaled. We have time now to build ships, we have been building $25,000,000 worth every year for our navy for the past ten years, and we have turned out some of the best ocean liners afloat. We shall be in future the greatest producers of cheap steel, and it was cheap steel and iron that laid the foundation of England's supremacy as a builder of ships. Before many years it will be no longer a fact, ludicrous as it seems in view of our large commerce, that for a twelvemonth not an American ship passed through the Suez Canal, that the port of Buenos Ayres has not seen an American vessel for a year, and that thirty years have elapsed since Hamburg, the third greatest port in the world, has seen the stars and stripes at a masthead.

THE EASTERN POLICY OF GERMANY.

BY G. BATTISTA GUARINI.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

WHEN William II. took in his strong hands the reins of the German Empire he found a new canon of the eastern policy of his fatherland in the treaty of Berlin. Beginning with the Congress of Reichenbach, held in July, 1790, where occurred the first manifestation of the policy of Germany in regard to the East, and where Prussia saw its ambiguous diplomacy crowned with one of the most notable failures in the history of statescraft, and reaching down to the London Conference of 1840, held on the Egyptian question, it can be truly said that that kingdom, and consequently the whole nation, had no logical, well-developed plan of dealing with

this most perplexing problem. Guizot roughly called the Prussian ministers satellites of Russia, and this harsh saying might have been repeated with much semblance of truth down through all the agitation which resulted in the Crimean War.

The treaty of 1878 broke with this long and by no means glorious tradition. Count Bismarck had seen, with the rigid analysis of a statistician, the destiny of his country, opposition to Slavic expansion. And for this reason, in spite of a century-old friendship, in spite of dynastic interminglings, in spite of the Dreikaiserbund,[1] Germany and Russia are fated by their ethnic characteristics to reciprocal aversion and enmity. The flood of Germanic influence which, powerful and vigorous, spread over the wild country of the Slav for so many generations, had been incited, tolerated, and suffered through a deep-laid plan. Peter the Great saw, with the intuition of a virile, innovating genius, that one people of Europe, more than the others, was endowed with the tenacity to accomplish the gradual development of his unformed empire. So he attracted the Teuton to Russia. Ever since his day the German element has entered into the transformation of the Russian people. But intellectual subjection has never yet generated affection and gratitude in semi-barbarous races. Under the apparent submission to German ideas brooded a profound antipathy. Only need and the desire for a grandiose development of the country could conceal the latent aversion and rancor.

While the Germanic and neo-Latin peoples, though originally antagonists and often divided by wars and violent feuds, still combined in the great work of defending western civilization against Arabic and Moslem fanaticism, while the violence and extent of their intestinal discords tacitly yielded to a sympathetic unity of culture and ideas, Russia, that sturdy oriental graft on the old European trunk, remained quiet, closed to the beneficent current. And when Peter the Great imposed a western civilization on it, it entered into European life, imposing its own political and religious autocracy in its turn. From that very time this new ethnic organism began its tenacious and violent expansion with the proclamation of its own religious and political principles, before which the future must stand in awe. With the audacity and force of youth this gigantic polypus has sent its robust tentacles in all directions. Already Slavic in the North, Asia tremblingly saw two sharp points threateningly penetrate to the South through the mountains of Afghanistan, and rapidly extend over the Transcaucasian plain. Now if the Slav bursts out into countries like these, in spite of great natural obstacles, what dikes shall Europe offer—Europe, which is protected by only artificial boundaries—when, ready for the decisive and fatal moment, he shall decide on action?

In the middle of continental Europe, in immediate contact with Russia, Germany and Austria stand in this work of general and individual protection. Sole representatives of Teutonism, they form the only ethnic nucleus, still vigorous in Europe, which is capable of resisting the one hundred and twenty million Slavs who are flowing toward the West from the Amur and the Lena. They have seen the peril and are seeking to prevent it. But one of the two, Austria, still coherent through forces that can be hardly otherwise explained than by the tradition of a glorious empire, feels its cohesion undermined by turbulent Slavic currents. Bismarck clearly saw this situation in 1878, and, pointing out to her the new way of the future, "Austria to the East," placed Austria as the advanced sentinel against the coming invasion. There can be no lasting accord between the Slav and the Teuton. They differ too much in their nature, intellectual, religious, political. Only the fearful prevision of the titanic struggle restrains and moderates their aggressive desires. They do not entrust themselves to the fortune of war, but none the less they are busy with extending each the influence of his race. More than a century ago the Great Frederick had pointed out the danger to Prussian independence: "If the Russians go to Constantinople," he

said, "in two years more they will reach Königsberg."

William II. saw and understood the great peril. He accepted the new canons of his diplomats. With the customary activity of his energetic mind he quickly faced the solemn problem, stamping upon it a vigorous personal imprint, as is his wont in all matters of state. He felt that his Germany, stronger than Austria in its ethnic and moral cohesion, could better oppose itself to the inroads of the Slavs. In continental Europe, out of all the Latin group which from time immemorial had been the natural barrier against every disturbing current, he found only France a still powerful nucleus. But a century of the history of the French nation, noble opponent of Slavic irruptions, glorious protagonist of the rights of Latin Europe in the face of Slavic semi-barbarism, is crowded out and disappears among the complications of the present hour.

England, however, offered him, with its long-standing policy of opposition to Russia, an aid in the stern undertaking. Such assistance might still be surely counted upon. But he soon found that in this quarter compromises with mutual advantages resulting, or perhaps declining energy in action, had removed the representative of the West from the disputed field.

William II. unites in his nature and character the severe qualities of his grandfather and the happy adaptability of his father. His make-up is a mingling of northern and southern traits. A youthful enthusiasm, even for things outside the range of politics, lends great fascination to the figure of the German sovereign. And this enthusiastic nature regained entire the energy of the race, while adjusting itself to pressure and unexpected changes and forces in the recent Greco-Turkish struggle.

For any one who superficially looked for motives of the policy of a monarch whose actions are sometimes subjected to the impulses of a youthful spirit, but still a spirit which determines these actions to assume a sane and mature order of ideas, there appeared no logical reason for the German policy. The cause of these motives was attributed either to a natural scorn or a lively irritation at the violation of international rights on the part of Greece at the time of her armed intervention in behalf of Crete. No one saw the pettiness of the first reason nor the emptiness of the second. No, the hostile attitude of William II. toward the nation which is the second fatherland of his sister has far other causes than those surmised by unreflecting political diviners. We have no reason to suppose that any desire for the rigid protection of the integrity of Turkey could have been revived in him by the breath of moral sympathy or the hope of territorial and commercial advantages. The eternal eastern question has not lasted so long on account of Ottoman strength or western affection for the Turk. Its only support has been the jealousy of the great powers and their terror at the thought of the possible spoils. In the Teuton the aversion to Islamism is innate. Metternich has said it, and Frederick William II. and Manteuffel[2] and Bismarck have said it. And Germany can hope for no territorial expansion from the destruction of the Moslem Empire, because she holds no territory contiguous to that empire. Nor is the spirit of commercial development, and the desire for peace which is favored by that spirit, an adequate explanation for the eastern policy of William II. More than all these reasons, rather than all, is the anticipation of future ill to his state, should the *status quo*[3] in the East be done away with.

Any solution of the Turkish problem, when we take into account the ethnic quantities, the power of impetus, the modern political currents, the tendencies of some of the Balkan states, will redound almost entirely to the advantage of Russia, whether Europe wills it or not. And the power of expansion of the Slavic race, emboldened by success, will be greater, and it will be mainly directed against the German race, from the proximity of the races, from the aversion of blood and policy, and from the lack of natural physical barriers. Therefore Germany is going to delay the terrible solution with all her powers. For this reason, when the

Cretan imbroglio involved Greek politics William II., fearing a general uprising which might become the occasion of a general European struggle, came forward to allay the excitement. And from that moment the long series of threats, counsels, opposition began which the German monarch has maintained throughout the whole Greco-Turkish conflict.

It may seem to superficial observers that William II., if we admit this explanation of his conduct, has had an inglorious recourse to the Prussian policy of a century and more ago. And his advice and aid and congratulations to the Musselman, triumphant over little, impoverished Greece, seems to recall vividly that past when Frederick William II. could receive from Diez, his ambassador at Constantinople, the following communication:

The Turkish ministers have no other will than what I inspire in them. . . . My object is to diffuse our influence into all the branches of the Turkish government and direct that government in Your Majesty's interest. If I may judge from the dispositions which now dominate here, every Turk has become a Prussian, and all the ministers speak of nothing but Prussia and its great monarch. Even Reis-Effendi is but pliable wax in my hands.

But what produced sympathy and interest in Turkey in those days was territorial greed. The policy of to-day is inspired by much higher motives.

When the conditions of the treaty of Kutchuk-Kainardji,[4] already very favorable to Russia, were violated by Catharine II. by the occupation of the Crimea, the eastern Turco-Russian question began to be a Russo-European question. Germany first saw this fact clearly in 1878 when Bismarck broke with the Prussian diplomatic tradition. In his eyes each phase of this question became a feature of the Germano-Slavic contest. So William II.'s energy has a double object: first, the proclamation of the integrity of the Ottoman Empire and the strengthening of its structure; and, second, the neutralizing of dissolvent energies from whatsoever quarter they may come. To have made himself, more than others and more than in the past, the intimate counselor of the sultan is not, as some believe, the effect of pure vanity and desire to put himself before the public. His influence on Turkish politics is as a watchful guard against unexpected crises and a strangling of pernicious measures. One would seek in vain for any other reason for this unwonted activity of his. Nor should we marvel at his agreement with Russia and his diplomatic courtesy toward her, for Russia in this present crisis has not been separated from the collective action of the West. The remembrance of 1878 and 1886 is too fresh for Russia to decide on the carrying out, even to a partial extent, of the ethnic ideal. The Muscovite Empire does not feel that the hour is ripe, and hence follows out the only line of policy possible, which is Ottoman integrity. By this policy (which was necessitated, and was not chosen freely by him) and by the European concert, William II. skilfully reinvigorated, without any apparently aggressive spirit, the rigidly conservative policy in its anti-Slavic design.

The emperor's tactics are preventive tactics. The treaty of 1878, despite the affirmations of some German publicists, was made in opposition to Russian plans. Yet Bismarck did not hesitate to affirm in a speech of February 6, 1888:

During the Congress of Berlin I can truthfully say I understood my part to be almost as a fourth Russian plenipotentiary to it, that is, so far as I was able to do so without injuring the interests of our friends. During all its deliberations no Russian desire came to my knowledge which I did not thereupon recommend and also which I did not put into realization. Thanks to the confidence and the friendship which Lord Beaconsfield manifested toward me, at dead of night I went to his sick-bed, in the most difficult and critical moments of the congress, and by his pillow at times when the breaking up of the congress was imminent I obtained his consent to my plans. In short, my conduct at the congress was such that he said to me after it closed: "I have had the highest Russian order for a long time, and I have set it in brilliants; otherwise you would receive it."

In the present conflict, if, in spite of the Triple Alliance, the Germany of Bismarck is most conciliatory toward Russia, the latter knows very well that the young emperor is establishing a preponderate in-

fluence with the sultan, to counteract any and every violation of the treaty of Berlin. That new breath of life, that violent injection of oxygen into the body of the Sick Man, tends to preserve him from a dissolution by which Russian aggrandizement would profit most materially. Inspired by a most lofty patriotism, William II. is correcting a century of anti-patriotic policy, and Germany follows him in his eastern policy, faithful and admiring. Germany has this advantage over other lands, that it is inhabited by a thoughtful, logical people. Just as the nation emphatically condemns an internal policy which savors of autocracy —as we see by the vote of the Reichstag on the 18th of May last—so it unconditionally approves the eastern and foreign policy.

We have seen abundant proofs in speech, book, or pamphlet that national disapproval had been freely meted out to the dynastic or party policy which had been observed on the eastern question for the past century. But in the present tendency all Germany applauds its leader, and this general approval is shown by a most interesting fact: among the troops of foreign volunteers enrolled for the defense of Greece there was not one German. It would be a strange thing, without this proof of the patriotic policy of the emperor, that a nation which manifested so much enthusiasm for the Hellenic glories of the past should suddenly stop and deny to them now what all non-diplomatic Europe conceded to them, a friendly word in a struggle for the freedom of their children. Germany has applauded their adversary because under the almost violent protection of a barbarous people she sees the defense of the great Teutonic element against the perils of the future. Has Europe reason to applaud? For those who on the whole believe, as we do, that the European concert in favor of the *status quo* in the East is a good thing, applause is a duty. The work of William II., inspired by national patriotism, becomes the work of occidental patriotism. It is indirect resistance to the Slavonic flood by a necessary equilibrium. It is a new crusade of the West against that East whence indeed came intellectual light into Europe, but also barbarism sometimes. And the attitude of the German monarch after the defeat of Greece lends also to our approval. As before he had tried all means to prevent war, and during the clash of arms had done everything to make it short, even in making it more violent, so now in maintaining the declaration already made he fights for Greek interests against the claims of the conqueror. To this result, to this wearisome work of peace, he gives his steadfast support.

But, in conclusion, will the present intervention of Europe, and particularly of Germany, an intervention which has been more energetic than the past interventions, have a lasting success hoped for in the maintenance of the Ottoman *status quo?* The origin of the struggle, we remember, was in forbidding the annexation of Crete to the mother country. The present arrangements will give autonomy to the island, instead of annexation. But a century of obstinate struggles which have had annexation for their object does not offer much comfort for the future peace of the island, nor will Greece's complete defeat, willed by Europe, be a safe punishment and a guaranty of long tranquillity. Still the political revolutions and the national reconstructions in these oriental conflicts do not really depend on the will and actions of the parties that are directly interested. When the treaty of July 21, 1774, put Moldavia and Wallachia under Russian protection, the will of the Balkan states disappeared, annihilated. Whatever may be the movements and the revolutions of the future, the Balkan Peninsula will never on its own account produce a single change in the liberties and autonomies already conceded. In the present crisis I hope I may prove a false prophet, but I greatly fear that the victory of Turkey favored by Europe will complicate and hasten the much-feared solution of the eastern question, even more than the triumph of Greece or the annexation of Crete would have done.

(End of Required Reading for December.)

A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER XIII.

THE SHADOW FALLS ON HEART'S DELIGHT.

PETE set out at a run toward the creek and turned in the direction where he knew the battle had been hottest. He met many stragglers and wounded, to all of whom he put the same question, "Has yo' seed meh young mahsteh?" Some returned not so much as a shake of the head to such an indefinite question; others gave a short no and hurried on. His young master! Too many young masters lay dead on that bloody field for any one to know which was his. Yet he persevered. Hatless, the tears running unheeded down his cheeks, ever running and ever hurling that inquiry at all he met, he was a pitifully grotesque figure, that looked more demented than sane. Fortunately he did not know how fruitless such questioning probably would be, for, as it happened, presently he found help. One gentleman answered by asking:

"Are you Captain Seddon's servant?"

"Yas, sah."

"And you say your master's son, young Ned Seddon, has been killed?"

"Yas, sah—oh, my Gord! my Gord!"

His tears and choking sobs would have answered had his lips been mute.

"Well, he must have fallen in the assault, for I saw him not long before. Look on the other side the creek, close to the road which leads up the hill."

He had hardly concluded when Pete set out upon his run again. The sun had hidden his face from the desolation which greeted him and lowering clouds threatened ominously. Away in their black depths the thunder rolled and crackled and the lightning licked out spitefully in forked gleams. The pasture looked to be in deep twilight; the darkness made the bodies Pete soon began to stumble upon more ghastly still. His teeth chattered; his breath came in gasps; his limbs trembled like a palsied man's—only the truest love could hold him to such a task. Soon it grew worse, for the scene of battle had not shifted too far for many a bullet to come whistling his way. Every one that struck the branches above his head with a distinct thud terrorized him the more. Once he fell to his knees and began to crawl, but his progress was too slow to satisfy him. He jumped to his feet and began to run again.

The bodies were thicker now; some, wounded, were groaning with pain. It was a grisly scene. All the tales he had heard around the cabin fire assailed his inbred superstition. Ghosts and devils and all hideous creatures took shape and menaced him. He was a lost spirit wandering through a Purgatorio. Those horrible piles of dead! Blue coats and gray heaped one on another—such a leveler is death! Every moment some frightful circumstance added to the grisliness. Now he had stepped into a pool of blood, which splashed him from head to foot. Ugh! The old darkies said the stain of human blood could never be washed away. Soon after a disheveled figure raised on its elbow and asked in God's name for a drink of water. Mephistopheles himself could not have caused Pete greater terror. Deaf to all entreaty, he gave a whoop of horror and fled, speeding in headlong flight over dead bodies or wounded with ruthless feet, careless of prayer or imprecation. Finally he caught his foot and fell. He could not rise at once; he only looked wildly about him, his affrighted eyes nearly bursting from their sockets.

Then he drew one deep breath; could it be possible? There lay Ned close beside him, with eyes half closed, half surprised. Pete gave a shout of joy and sprang to his side, caressing and weeping over him as his mother would have done. Laughing and

crying at once, he murmured in broken sentences:

"He ain' daid! Mahs Gawg didn' know. He ain' daid! Bress de Lahd! Jes' w'en I gin up hope er fin'in 'im, dar he war, er-smilin' at Pete ez sweet ez er li'l' baby. Ef I could pray lack pappy I'd pray. Bress Gord! Bress Gord!"

Ned tried to smile, but the wan lips only quivered. Presently he whispered wearily:

"I thought you'd come, Pete. Take me back quick."

With a tenderness more than tender the faithful servant lifted him in his arms, throwing the chief burden on his shoulders. To go back the way he had come was not to be thought of, so he turned toward the road which mounted the hill and skirted the pasture. But soon, in spite of his powerful strength, he staggered under his load and was forced to lay the boy, again unconscious, upon the grass.

Just then he saw one of the wagons, busy removing the dead from the field, coming down the road, and hastened toward it. When he came up it had halted and the driver was ineffectually urging the horses with oath and lash to proceed. The wheels had literally mired in the dust produced by the rolling of countless vehicles and the tramp of thousands of feet. Finally the driver, exhausted with swearing and beating, called, "'Tain't no use, boys. You'll have to unload."

Thereupon the men in charge began to toss out their comrades' bodies as carelessly as butchers unloading swine. A rude jest on each poor fellow that increased the pile added to the uncanny hideousness of the scene. Pete was far more sensitive than those of whiter skin; horrified at their levity he ran back, determined that Ned should not be entrusted to such ungentle hands. As though in response to his dilemma he saw a riderless horse grazing a short distance away, and soon, with the assistance of a soldier opportunely returning to camp, he had lifted his young master upon it. The distance to the tent was then easily and quickly cleared. The fighting was a mile beyond the hill by this time and no obstacle hindered.

The surgeon of Captain Seddon's company was in attendance at the hospital and took Ned at once into his charge. Only a superficial examination was made, more being unnecessary. The boy's face read his doom. He lay motionless, his breath so faint that unless one were close beside him he seemed not to breathe at all. Pete, hardly more alive, seemingly, knelt beside him. Utterly oblivious to the disorder that prevailed, he did not once withdraw his eyes from the white face, but his cheek was constantly wet with the tears that rolled down unheeded.

An hour had passed thus when Captain Seddon and Mr. Mayhew entered the tent and stood beside the cot. As if his father's presence had power to recall him to life, Ned opened his eyes and smiled faintly into the face that strove to return the smile in vain, and gently pressed the hand holding his own.

"Father," he whispered. The father put his ear close to the pale lips. "Tell mother I thought I'd make—her proud of me—to-day,—but luck deserted—me—at last. Kiss her—and little Nell—for me." A pause and then he said: "Give Max my—love. Always be good—to Pete."

Pete could restrain his grief no longer. Seizing the hand near him he covered it with kisses, his sobs filling the tent. Captain Seddon knelt and drew his boy's head to his bosom, but his anguish forbade his uttering the words he wished to say.

"Dear, dear father," was the tender whisper, "I wish I—could stay"—and his own lashes were wet. "Pray, Mr. Mayhew."

After the prayer he lay so still and such an exquisite content glorified his face that they thought him dead. Outside there was a shouting; the victorious Confederates were returning to camp. Ned opened his eyes again.

"Our soldiers are happy over their victory," explained the surgeon.

For a moment the boy's heart beat with its wonted vigor. He waved his hand feebly,

with the boyish gesture all who knew him loved so well, and almost gaily cried:

"Hurrah for the brave Confederate boys!"

A convulsive shiver—a gasp—and the sheen of the Heavenly City fell athwart his face. Ned's first battle had been his last.

That night the three mourners bore the body home to the mother. She hardly made a moan, she did not shed a tear; but all the day till the final hour she sat beside him, calling him by the fond names she had always lavished on him, her idol, her first-born, and smoothing his light curls with the caressing touches he had loved. When the time came for shutting him out from mortal sight she covered the pallid forehead with feverish kisses, whispering with heart-broken resignation, "Good-by, my childie. It will not be long."

They laid him to sleep beneath a pendant-twigged willow in the graveyard beside the orchard, where in summer the long grasses wave gently above him and in winter the winds sing his requiem. The cause he died for long ago lost its significance to the people of his beloved Southland, but he sleeps as calmly as though it had been triumphant—as though his grave had been crowned with laurel instead of the wreath of rue.

In such troubled times the dead must almost bury themselves. Only a few neighbors, besides the pastor and servants, were there to do him honor. Nell clung to her father and sobbed most piteously, while he repressed his grief only by the most determined effort. His wife was calm and her eyes dry, though her sighs would have softened a stone, till Pete threw himself on the new grave and broke his heart with weeping. Then, angelic as ever in her thoughtfulness of others, she bent over him to whisper some word—of comfort, or of gratitude, perhaps, for enabling her boy to send even a brief, brief message home—bent over him, and fell fainting at her husband's feet.

CHAPTER XIV.

AN EMIGRATION.

MRS. CHESTER and her son, Mr. Adolphus Chester, ex-captain of the Sixth —— Volunteers, were in the sitting-room at The Oaks in deep conversation. It was several weeks after his retirement from the Confederate service, and only two days since the closing scene of the last chapter. His hat and riding-gloves were on the floor beside his chair, indicating that he had just come in from a ride and was in more haste than he usually allowed himself to be. Possibly his hurried retreat had given him a lesson in the art of despatch.

"So the doctor advises you to leave this state at once?" Mrs. Chester was saying.

"Well, no; not exactly that, but he says I endanger my life every time I go into a battle. The fat around my heart is apt to melt and immediate death will result if it does. I wish I could fight those dastardly Yankees without losing my temper and getting hot all over, but I just can't. And if we stay here I must go back into the army; I couldn't resist the temptation, even if I knew I should be killed in the first fight. Of course I wouldn't care for that—I should think any southerner (except some of those cowardly fellows in my company) would be glad to die that way; but I am thinking of you and Edith. I owe my widowed mother and orphaned sister my first duty. I don't care what any one says or thinks; I am not going to expose myself to certain death and leave you and Edith to battle with the world alone."

It was the longest and most filial speech Adolphus had ever made. It caused his mother to overflow with gratitude and admiration.

"Oh, Adolphus," she said, almost crying, "you are the best son that ever lived, I know. I'm the proudest woman in America. Just to think how brave you are, and yet just as thoughtful of me and your sister as if you were no braver than other people! You are exactly like your poor, dear father. I always was a coward about a gun, but he never was afraid of anything. I do hate, though, to have you give up all your prospects for us."

"I'm glad to make the sacrifice." (He never spoke a truer word.) "I don't want

to shirk any responsibility of an only son. You are willing, then, to go to Nebraska till the war is over?"

"Yes, indeed, I want to go as soon as possible. I'm afraid you will be running off to join General McClintock if we stay here two weeks longer. Only one thing—two—worry me."

"What are they?"

"I don't know what the Confederacy will do without your help. No matter how modest you are, you can't fool me. I am positive that you resigned your command because you were disgusted that every man was not as great a hero as yourself."

"I was the very last man on the field, and I had never ordered a retreat—they ran without any orders."

"Well, I should hate dreadfully for the South to fail because I am such a coward that I want to get away from the war. If only your poor, dear father were alive! And the other thing is, if the Confederacy should succeed without you, you wouldn't have any share in the offices and all that. There is no telling what you might get to be if we gained our independence. After President Davis—"

"Let's not talk about that any more. I have made up my mind to the sacrifice and I'll stick to what I have said."

"Yes, you are always so firm. Oh, Adolphus, there is another thing—what shall we do with the house and farm?"

"Leave them here, of course."

"You know what I mean; who will take care of everything? The more I think of it the more I see plainly we ought not to go. Why, the house might be burned down. People are getting mean enough to do anything."

"The house is in no danger, nor anything else. Jim has been running the place for fifteen years and could continue to do so. But I am glad you would rather not go. I will set out for camp to-morrow. Probably another battle will be fought soon and I can test the truth of the doctor's opinion. If I should die, mother, remember I offered to sacrifice my desire to die for my country and live for you and —

"You shall not join the army again! I don't care what becomes of the house. You would die—I know you would. I will start for Nebraska next week."

"No, the other decision suits me exactly. The house might be burned and the crops be unharvested."

"What are a thousand houses to me in comparison with your life? I tell you I am going, and you must go with me."

"Well, if you will have it so, and as I have already given you my promise. But I don't believe Edith will go. She will be afraid that Cousin Evelyn will need her, or that one of the darkies will get sick and lack some attention."

"Oh, yes, she will go when she learns what you are giving up for our safety. Let me see; we will close the blinds to the house, store the furniture in a few rooms, and turn the kitchen over to Jim and Nancy. Mr. Dupey will oversee things somewhat for us, I suppose, and if there is business to be transacted wouldn't Mr. Allyn—?"

"I will have nothing to do with him! Although he is not in the Federal army he is doing as much for that side as any blasted Yankee among them. I will sacrifice my feelings enough to emigrate to a free state, but pray do not press me any farther. There are others just as capable as Allyn of attending to your affairs."

"Oh, of course. When do you wish me to be ready to start?"

"You talk as though you were going with me. The question is, when will you be ready? I can arrange my plans to suit yours, but the sooner we go the better."

"My arrangements can be completed in a week."

"Very well; this day week then we leave."

Thus with slight difficulty Adolphus had not only persuaded his mother to accompany him to Nebraska under show of a sublime sacrifice, but had made her believe him a hero spoiling for conquest. Moreover, he had almost—not quite—reached this conclusion himself, despite the unmerciful twitting he everywhere received. Even

in passing a crowd of darkies one day he distinctly caught the whisper, "Mahs 'Dolphus, he run, he did." Yet, in face of his recognized cowardice, he was each moment nearer accepting his mother's fond sentiments of his courage. Such was the condition when Edith entered the room.

Mrs. Chester looked at Adolphus, and Adolphus looked at Mrs. Chester, each wishing that the other would declare their plan. Ordinarily Edith would have noticed their embarrassment and laughed at it, but she had just returned from Heart's Delight with a heart too sad for trifles.

"How are all at Evelyn's?" Mrs. Chester asked.

"Not much changed from yesterday; only a little sadder if possible, as Cousin John has returned to his command. Poor little Nell cries half the time and Cousin Evelyn's heart is broken. You may expect me to be there most of the time for a while, mamma. Cousin John left them in my care and I must do all I can to lighten their grief."

Mrs. Chester thought this an opportunity to declare their purpose and did so in as few words as possible. To their vexation, hardly their surprise, the girl positively refused to go.

"Run before the Yankees? I will not," she said.

Adolphus winced. In families where there has been a hanging it is not safe to talk about ropes; so did the word "run" gall him cruelly.

"But, Edith, you do not understand," her mother continued. "Adolphus is wild to go back to the army, but the doctor says he will die if he does; and he loves us so much that he is willing to sacrifice all his brilliant prospects for our safety. But we are not safe here and must go to a free state outside the war district."

"I don't entirely understand, mamma. What are Adolphus' brilliant prospects that he is sacrificing for us? I never heard of them before. He threw up his captaincy after the first skirmish. As to our safety, I feel perfectly secure, and he would too if he were where he belongs, in the Confederate army fighting for his country."

"But you forget about your brother's delicate condition—his fatty heart."

"So it is for his own safety, then, not ours, that he wishes to run away?"

"Edith, I wish you would choose your words with more care," interposed Adolphus. "Your talk of running away hurts my feelings very much." Then turning to his mother: "I told you she would not go. She does not care that much for our pleasure and comfort."

Edith answered him with a look of scorn, but her tone to her mother lacked nothing in affection.

"Please do not insist upon my going, mamma. It is perfectly right that you should if you feel unable to endure any more of the war. I know Ned's death has shaken you terribly."

Her voice choked and she paused. After a moment she resumed:

"But that very event forbids my leaving Cousin Evelyn. Think of her, mamma! —her boy dead, her husband away. What would she do with us gone too? Let us do this: you go to Nebraska with Adolphus and I will stay with her. You do not need me and she does."

Edith's mother had learned long ago that her daughter's no was final, so at last she yielded and all was arranged to Adolphus' satisfaction, which was the greater, perhaps, because Edith was not going. She had too strict a sense of honor and duty and a most uncomfortable way of divining one's motives.

Edith slept little that night. Her animosity toward the North, heightened by Ned's death, had flamed into passion. And yet, singular as it may appear, she felt more kindly toward Max than she had since his tragic determination to cast in his fortune with her enemies. If Adolphus had been gifted with as indomitable courage as her own she might have ended by hating Max —for a time at least—most heartily, as he feared she would; but she had been given such a clear idea of her brother's conduct that she felt her own honor impeached in his cowardice. As a result she was humbled, humiliated, enough to be more

lenient to those holding opinions conflicting with hers. If she had been formed in a narrower mold the consequence might have been reversed; but her eyes were too clear not to be generous, and Adolphus' unlucky skirmish was the ill wind which blew to the hopeless lover an admiration, mingled with resentment though it was, which no power could have compelled her to admit.

She did not forgive him—it takes long years to efface such resentment. Besides, she felt that one indulgent thought of him, with Ned's grave not three days old, was disloyal to everything faithful and true. And yet—ah, and yet! for she was a woman—she wept bitter tears to think what glorious happiness had been hers if the war had not stolen it away. Or, if Max had been loyal to the South, even if he filled a grave beside the boy at Heart's Delight, how she could exult in his love!

Every word of their brief courtship lived again in her memory. Again she walked down the lane, again that eager face, brimful of longing, confronted her, and again she found in his arms dear refuge from all perplexities. One moment she regretted she had ever known such a scene; the next she confessed that that one evening was worth all her life besides. Thus she tossed with conflicting regret, the burden of her woe ever being Max, whom she could not hate if she would and whom she would not hate if she could.

If he could only have known! In the first glow of his enlistment he had fancied himself almost happy, but consciousness of doing one's duty grows to be lean sustenance. Philosophers and idealists are theorizing about a race of perfectionists, unwrinkled by sin, when they claim for it supreme happiness. Not that he regretted his course; he was moved by principle, not emotion. It was the only course open to one of his integrity. Yet very often he had to bolster himself with a recital of all the arguments on his side to be convinced he had not played the fool. In many weak moments his heart-sick soul accused him of selling his birthright for a mess of pottage; or, he felt that he was starving, with food in sight which he dared not eat.

Love, as everything else, was very real to him. It was not a namby-pamby sentimentalism, frail as a sensitive plant, but a genuine affection, promising to last forever. At each letter from Richard Allyn such a tide of homesickness for Edith and his brother and all the home folk and the dear old place rolled over him that he cared not whether he lived or died. Indeed it was partly sheer recklessness which carried him to the fore-front of every battle, there to win promotion and honors which gave him little joy—for he could not help feeling that the more he signalized his devotion to the Union the more estranged he was from every object he held dear. Nor were the Federal victories an unmixed triumph. The bond between him and his brother had always been too perfect for him to fail to sympathize with what he knew must be to the other a sore grief. Poor Max! Life's cares are heavy burdens when they fall on shoulders grown strong in bearing them. How nearly insupportable when they fall on the inexperienced!

The preparation at The Oaks for departure prospered so that all was in readiness by the day named. The day preceding, Mrs. Chester was driven into Jefferson to pay several farewell calls, among them one to Mrs. Richard Allyn. Adolphus strongly remonstrated against the visit, but his mother had a decided admiration for the young lawyer's pretty wife and felt that as long as he was not actually enrolled in the Federal army she could afford to keep the wife on her visiting list.

There, to her astonishment, she found Mrs. Wire, occupying the most comfortable chair and expatiating on Siley and little Sile and Kansas with her peculiar volubility.

"I think you have met Mrs. Wire, Mrs. Chester," the hostess said.

"La! yes, at Mis' Seddon's. How dy'e, Mis' Chester? How air ye?"

"Thank you, quite well."

The reply was accompanied by the air of a duchess and a sniffing curl of my lady's lip. It was not that she resented Mrs.

Wire's presence as the wife of the militia captain. Such a consideration would have cut short her acquaintance with a social equal like Mrs. Allyn, but she too utterly and thoroughly despised persons as low-born as the Wires to care about their political preferences.

"Sile, where's your manners? Speak to Mis' Chester like er little gentleman," his mother insisted.

But Sile was mute and Mrs. Chester vouchsafed him hardly so much as a glance.

"And so you are going away," said Mrs. Allyn after they were seated.

"Yes, we start to-morrow."

"Where to, Mis' Chester?" The captain's wife was not at all abashed by a lack of civility.

The look she received would have frozen less delicate material; the tone was an icicle.

"To Nebraska."

"Dear Lord! air you though? I've got er fourth cousin some'er' in Newbrasky. His name——"

Mrs. Chester to Mrs. Allyn:

"My son is really compelled to leave. Our physician says——"

"His name is George Wash'n'ton Ketchum—my fam'ly name before I married Siley. Ef you——"

"That he must not go into the service again. Any excitement or overheating is liable——"

"Ef you run acrosst him while you air gadd'n' about, jest——"

"To prove fatal. But still he would not think of going except for my safety and Edith's. I am so anxious about him."

Mrs. Wire brought her own sentence to an abrupt close to ejaculate,

"That big, fat feller?"

Another icy glare and Mrs. Chester continued:

"It nearly breaks Adolphus' heart to leave the army. He is so brave that he would fight a whole regiment all by himself rather than retreat."

"He! he! he!" giggled Mrs. Wire.

"I never saw any one as fearless except his poor, dear father. But, as I said, our physician's orders are imperative."

The subject was dangerous and Mrs. Allyn hastened to change it.

"Your son is certainly wise to avoid any further risk. I understand you will leave Miss Edith with Mrs. Seddon."

"Yes, she declared positively she would not leave her cousin."

"I guess Edith's 'fraid Max might come home an' she'd miss see'n him 'way off in Newbrasky."

Both ladies sat speechless at such impertinence.

"You needn't git mad erbout it—I didn't mean noth'n'. I don't blame no girl fur lov'n' Max Seddon. He's ez fur ahead uv his brother ez them fine hogs the colonel has is uv er hazel-splitter."

Before she had nearly finished Mrs. Chester had begun to say:

"I know I have the best children in the world, Mrs. Allyn. There is Adolphus sacrificing all his brilliant prospects for Edith and me. And she—why she has the tenderest heart! Every time she comes from Evelyn's she has a good cry. But it's no wonder she feels sorry for Evelyn."

"Poor, dear lady," said Mrs. Allyn. "I went out there a few days ago, and it nearly broke my heart to see how changed the place is. When we were first invited there, more than a year ago, I thought it was nearer paradise than any home I had ever seen. Now the desolation chills me. And Mrs. Seddon's white, wan face with the sorrowful eyes has haunted me ever since."

Mrs. Wire had been ignored as long as she could endure it.

"I say all her trouble's the jedgment o' God fur her pride. When I heard her son had fell I wa'n't s'prised—dear Lord, no! I never heard tell o' nobody ez stuck-up an' stiff-necked ez Mis' Seddon what didn't come to grief."

Mrs. Chester only looked; she was too frenzied for words. Mrs. Allyn said in her most appeasing tone,

"You misunderstand Mrs. Seddon's character."

"No, I don't neither. Me'n' Siley's jest ez good ez anybody, an' all the time we lived on that place she never come in our

house but onct, an' that was when this precious, blessed child had the pneumony. An' that high an' mighty air she allus had—it made me wanter up an' sass her ev'ry time I see her. 'Oh, Kansas!' says I when I heard how cut up she was over that boy be'n' dead—'oh, Kansas! it'll be the means o' grace to her to be took down some.'"

"Madam!" cried Mrs. Chester, who had found her tongue, "pray do not mention that hated name in my presence again! I should wish to be out of the Union if for no other reason than because that state belongs to it."

"Kansas people is jest ez good ez you, ma'm. You ain't no better'n Mis' Seddon, an' I'm glad uv er chance to tell you so. You think 'cause you allus wear yore silks, folks in calicer ain't good 'nough t' wipe yore feet on. Other people's go'n' t' have some fine clo'es too—dear Lord! What'll you think then? An' I'll tell you why yore 'Dolphus left the army; it's 'cause he's er coward. Oh, Kansas! wouldn't I hate fur ev'rybody t' be laugh'n' at Siley like they's laugh'n' at him! Siley he told me, an' Siley knows. Ask yore brave soldier ef he's still expect'n' uv them troops whut he wus wait'n' fur at——"

Mrs. Chester never could recall how she got out of the room and the house. She had a confused memory of earnest apology from Mrs. Allyn and then a sense of relief that she could breathe air not polluted by that vulgar woman's presence. She was mortified to death to think how nearly she had come to quarreling with the creature. What would the Virginia relatives say if they had witnessed such a scene? Everlasting disgrace would be her doom, she did not doubt. She cared not a straw for Mrs. Wire's criminations; she laughed at them afterward. But she had no words that would express her indignation at the woman's familiarity.

"Just to think!" she said, "that brazen creature actually was trying to tell me of some low-born relative of hers, whom I really believe she intended to ask me to look up! She would not have dared suggest such a thing six months ago. I don't know what will become of us all if this horrible war continues."

Mrs. Allyn laughed and cried at once when she described the encounter to her husband, but it elicited only peals of laughter from him.

"Don't laugh, Richard," she said. "I was never so ashamed in my life. The captain's wife shall never come into my house again. Stand by him officially all you wish, but don't ask me to do the honors to such a coarse, ill-bred woman."

Of course Mrs. Wire also gave her husband an animated description, winning a bearish caress for her audacity.

"Don't you fear we won't get even with all them high-toned 'ristocrats," was his approving answer. "The time's comin' fast when I'll make 'em pay for ev'ry sneer. Folks don't turn up their noses at Silas Wire or his without gettin' back more'n they give. The longer they put it off the more the interest grows. Just wait till I get to be commander of the post!"

CHAPTER XV.

THE SHADOW DEEPENS.

DEAR COUSIN JOHN:

If you can possibly get a furlough I wish you would come home. I am greatly troubled over Cousin Evelyn's condition. As you know, her health has been failing ever since Ned's death, but it has grown much worse during the last few weeks—at least the change is more evident. The doctor comes every day, but leaves little medicine and gives me no satisfaction. I should have written you sooner, but I feared you could not get leave of absence and the letter would only make you too anxious. Besides, every day I have hoped the next would bring a change for the better. Now, however, I dare not postpone writing any longer. I am not attempting to conceal my great uneasiness, and earnestly hope you may be able to come at once.

The rest of us are well. The darkies are as obedient as though under your eye. Job is faithful and capable beyond words. Mr. and Mrs. Allyn have been most kind to us. Their hearts are sound if their heads are not.

I write without Cousin Evelyn's knowledge, though I shall tell her after I have posted the letter. In the hope that you can answer in person.

Lovingly,

Edith.

Heart's Delight, March 15, 1862.

This brief letter affords a glimpse into the event of chief concern to us during the dreary winter of '61–2. Edith's fears were only too well founded. The gentle mistress of Heart's Delight was slipping away, inch by inch, from the cares and heartaches of the great world. Ah, she had measured her endurance well when she declared to Ned that she would never be able to survive the grief of his death. Yet if her husband had been with her constantly to support her fainting spirit with his strong personality she might have fought off the terrible heart-sickness that was so ruthlessly sapping her life. In vain Edith strove to take the master's place and win health to the tired body. Daily the sad face grew more and more wan, the white hands thinner, the pale lips more bloodless, the sweet smile, that had played round her lips so long that it had left its shadow there, more pathetic. Oh, it was pitiful!

But she was as brave as she had been at Ned's coffin; never a murmur or complaint escaped her. Each morning to Edith's anxious inquiry, to the servants' fond questions, and to little Nell's plaintive query there was the same placid response designed to reassure their foreboding. Even after she was too weak to sit up more than a few hours a day she would smile with a pathos more moving than tears and return an answer half apology for the pain she inflicted in not showing the old-time vigor. She had her couch drawn to the window from which she could see the broken shaft she had had erected over her boy's grave, and there for hours, with wide-open, far-away eyes, her hands clasped upon her breast, she would lie as quietly as though death had already claimed her.

Such mournful apathy could not fail to appeal even to Nell. "Motherie," she asked one day, using a tender diminutive she had caught from her brother, "why don't you laugh and play with me any more?"

"Why, you have Cousin Edith to play with you now, my pet. Mother is getting to be an old woman and can't exert herself as she used to do."

"Are you very sick, mother? I heard Hannah tell Mollie she was mighty uneasy about you."

"Hannah must not say such foolish things. Come, cuddle down here beside me, and we'll play you are my baby again. That is the only kind of playing mother is good for now."

"And will you let us turn the lounge around so you can't look at the graveyard? It makes me feel so bad to see you lie this way all the time."

"Mother has been selfish; she didn't know you cared. She lies here and thinks of Ned until she almost imagines she can see him and hear him laugh."

They moved the couch in sight of another window, the child doing most of the work. When they had lain down, and the mother had kissed her fondly and was holding her close, she lay strangely quiet.

"What are you thinking about, Nellie? I like to hear my cricket chirp."

Nell looked wistfully into her mother's face. "Mother, did you love Ned better than me?"

"Why, no! my darling. What could have put that into your head?"

"Hannah said she believed you were dying for love of Ned. Oh, mother! dear, dear mother! please don't! You've got your little Nell left."

Then she burst into a storm of weeping which showed how deeply the words had cut into her little heart. The mother wept too, assuring her again and again of her love.

For a few days following the dear lady made heroic effort to grow better, and did appear brighter, as though a pale reflection of the old sunny temper. But it could not last; the bullet which ended Ned's life pierced his mother's heart also. Indeed the very effort weakened her the more. Thereafter she quickly became too frail to attend to the simple duties she had never wholly relinquished, and the entire oversight of the servants was committed to Edith, on whose strong young arms the mistress leaned as confidingly as did little Nell. Then it was that Edith penned the letter to Captain Seddon, reproaching her-

self bitterly that she had not had the courage to write it before, and wretched with anxiety lest he might not come in time.

It was well that she waited no longer. The grim tidings reached him just on the eve of departure with the troops for the far South; a further delay of two days and he would have been out of reach of letters, however urgent; for all available forces were now being ordered to Mississippi to form a junction under Beauregard, in preparation for the struggle with that Jason who was to win a second golden fleece.

Unfaltering obedience to this order was unsung heroism, but heroism nevertheless. The troops whose organization has been chronicled in these pages were enlisted primarily for the protection of their own Penates. In the less than twelvemonth since their enrollment they had, unaided by the Confederacy, in connection with the other southern forces of the state, equipped an army, held a larger number of the enemy at bay and driven it finally from the state, fought countless skirmishes, won three out of four battles, captured stores, arms, and artillery, and gained a name for valor unsurpassed by any soldiers of the lost cause. Yet at command, with many a backward glance, with tearful eyes and anxious hearts, they turned their backs upon their unprotected homes, and, shouldering knapsack and gun, marched away in defense of the principle they believed right. Many did not see their homes again for years, many never returned. They spilled their blood on every southern battle-field, or the light of life went out most pitifully in northern prisons.

Fortunately, as has been said, Captain Seddon received Edith's letter before departure. Picture his distress if you can. He knew from his wife's letters that she was not well, but he had not dreamed of such a condition as this. That the bereavement would affect her health and forever destroy her gladness of heart he had expected from the first, but to steal her very life—it was not possible. If he had only known before! And yet Edith was right—war knows no holidays.

On second thought he was persuaded it was not so bad as the girl supposed. She was inexperienced and easily alarmed. Surely, surely his wife could not be dying. . . . But his boy had died! . . . Thus he wavered between hope and despair during what seemed interminable hours. Next morning he entered on his leave of absence.

(To be continued.)

NEWS-GETTING AT THE CAPITAL.

BY DAVID S. BARRY.

OF late years a barrier so high and so strong has been set up between the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Departments of the government and the newspaper correspondents that only by the most vigorous, persistent, and united assaults is it broken down and the public given an inkling of what its servants are doing in regard to matters in which they are vitally interested. Members of Congress, of course, have their own particular fortunes to consider, and, finding it necessary to use the newspapers for the purpose of reaching the ears of their constituents and the voters generally, frequently give reliable information of a confidential nature and in advance of general publicity to correspondents with whom they desire to be on friendly terms. Members of the cabinet, likewise, occasionally "leak" on some live topic of news. When they do so, however, it is generally for the purpose of grinding an ax of their own and not because they desire to do a favor to the newspaper correspondent and through him to the dear public. Instances of public men in Washington telling both sides of a story when talking voluntarily, or even under compulsion, to newspaper correspondents are delightfully rare.

This policy of secrecy has become rap-

idly popular during the past ten years, until under the Cleveland administration it became so firmly fixed that information on public questions, especially with regard to the business of the State Department, was obtained much after the fashion in which highwaymen rob a stage-coach. These latter-day knights of the road are not burglars or street thieves, but by their own system of suasion they compel their victims to hold up their hands and disgorge the contents of their pockets. In Crane's popular play "The Senator," the actors weave their plots in the drawing-room of the secretary of state. Legislators, public officials, cabinet ministers, newspaper correspondents, cab drivers, telegraph messenger boys, women of the town, detectives, and heavy villains use the secretary's parlors as a rendezvous and go in and out at pleasure, at all hours of the day and night, and the newspaper reporter is always shown going about with an open note-book in his hand, jotting down haphazard memoranda of every move of the thrilling drama. In "real life," however, the drawing-room of the secretary of state has its latch-string very firmly fastened on the inside, and the newspaper correspondent who is invited to enter may get a glass of punch, but as for state secrets, he must get them on the outside if at all.

The State and Treasury Departments are especially strict in the observance of the policy of secrecy. It has often been said that the news of treasury operations comes first from Wall Street, and this is true to a large extent. The operators in "the street" are quite apt to be informed of financial matters before the red-tape system of the treasury will allow them to be made known to the newspaper correspondents at Washington, and if they succeed in obtaining and publishing the information prematurely the value of it is always discounted by the solemn "official denial" which is persisted in until concealment of the truth is no longer possible. During the great financial distress in the spring of 1893, which resulted in the passage of the Silver Repeal Bill and the repeated sales of bonds, the intention of the secretary of the treasury to redeem treasury notes in silver was as well known in Washington as that hard times existed. The fact that all preparations had been made for paying silver over the cash-room counter had been widely published and generally accepted as true, when suddenly the administration repudiated the treasury plan and the president in a public interview denied that redemption in silver coin had been contemplated by the administration. The secretary of the treasury endorsed the denial and the newspaper correspondents were of course unable to prove to the public that their early reports had been correct.

The manner in which the information with regard to the late Secretary Gresham's patriotic despatch to the Spanish government, demanding a prompt apology for the insult offered to the American flag by the firing upon the *Alianca*, was given to the public affords a good illustration of the method and the effects of State Department secrecy. For two or three days the newspaper correspondents had been watching for news of the action of the administration. Mr. Gresham was then ill in bed at his hotel and Mr. Uhl was acting secretary of state. To the numerous inquiries for information he replied that nothing had been done. At the close of business hours on March 14, 1895, the representatives of the two news associations made their last call and still the acting secretary replied "nothing." About four o'clock on that day, however, after the United Press and Associated Press reporters had left the building, a few special correspondents happened to drop in on Mr. Uhl, and to them he admitted that a despatch had been sent to the Spanish minister of foreign affairs. Mr. Uhl would not give the contents of the despatch and would only say that it contained everything that the department thought it proper to say. The most persistent questioning failed to extract any further information. The correspondents were thus compelled to jump at conclusions and use their own judgment in guessing at the contents of the despatch. The lucky ones boldly announced that it was a vigorous demand for an apology, while

others said it was merely a request for detailed information and indicated that the department did not intend pointedly to resent the insult. The press associations published nothing at all, as they were not even informed that a cablegram had been sent.

The result was that two or three newspapers had correct information of the secretary's action, many others had incorrect information, while by far the larger number had none at all, and several days elapsed before the public was satisfied that the newspapers which said that a demand for an apology had been made had hit the nail on the head. That despatch to the Spanish ministry, moreover, is the one for which the State Department under the Cleveland administration obtained universal and popular approval. Its prompt and wide publication was earnestly desired, and yet the public received it piecemeal, simply because of the unfortunate and unnecessary policy of secrecy that it is to be hoped will not be perpetuated in the administration of the State Department.

President Cleveland seldom if ever talked to a newspaper correspondent. When he had something to communicate to the public he wrote it out and gave it to his private secretary to hand to the representative of the press associations. Mr. Cleveland early developed a fondness for making announcements in this formal way and it is a fact perhaps worth noting that he almost invariably selected Sunday evening for having his messages promulgated, evidently believing that on Monday morning the newspapers had ample space to devote to his utterances.

This method was also a favorite one with the late James G. Blaine. No public man in America better understood the ways and means of reaching the public ear through the newspaper press than Blaine. He cultivated the acquaintance of the representatives of powerful and widely circulated journals and often gave them "scoops," but when he did so it was generally for the purpose of making a point for himself, and the newspaper correspondent who did not at all times hurrah for Blaine found himself suddenly cut off from the list of that great man's favorite friends. When Blaine wanted the largest audience he wrote out what he had to say, sent for the representatives of the press association, and handed them his copy without a word, just as President Cleveland did, and always, when the nature of the information would permit, on Sunday nights.

It was in just this way that Blaine made known his dramatic resignation from President Harrison's cabinet. One hot afternoon in 1892—Saturday, June 4—when nearly all of Washington except a remnant of Congress had left the city for Minneapolis, where the Republican National Convention was about to assemble, a telephone message came to the office of one of the two great press associations that Mr. Blaine would like to see a reporter. As this was a request of almost daily occurrence no special importance was attached to it, and a typewriter, a boy in his teens, was sent over to the secretary's residence on Lafayette Square. Here Mr. Blaine met him at the door and handed him an envelope containing some sheets of paper. The boy leisurely went back to the office, opened the envelope, and handed its contents to the news editor; two minutes later the whole office was in a state of excitement and the telegraph operators were sending broadcast the correspondence between President Harrison and James G. Blaine that ended their friendship and created a vacancy in the office of secretary of state.

A notable example of a man who has an intelligent idea of the proper relations of the newspaper reporter to the public is Speaker Reed. He is never afraid to meet a reporter or to tell the truth. He does not patronize him or abuse him; neither does he at all times give the information sought. He can say no as readily and firmly as he says yes, but he gossips with newspaper correspondents with whom he is acquainted with practically the same freedom that he shows to a personal and political friend. and the result of his manliness is the almost universal praise of his leadership in

the House and the extraordinary good will recently shown by the newspaper press toward his higher political aspirations.

Assistant Secretary of the Navy Roosevelt is another striking example of the truthful, fearless man in public life. The work of the Civil Service Commission while he was a member of it was carried on behind glass doors, and any man, whether congressman, public official, newspaper reporter, or private citizen, who complained of unfair treatment was given an opportunity to examine the records of the commission and encouraged to point to a case of improper operation of the law. In the Navy Department he pursues the same policy.

United States Senators Hanna, Lodge, Aldrich, and Gorman and Representatives Dingley and Bailey are other examples of those active in managing public affairs who understand the advantage of using the newspapers freely as a means of communication between themselves and the public and who regard newspaper men as members of a profession as honorable and useful as that of law or of medicine.

To one not thoroughly conversant with the practices of public men in Washington it may seem incredible that they would descend to misrepresentation and downright falsehood to counteract the effect of a foolish action or an unwise utterance; but well-authenticated instances of such moral cowardice are so numerous as to leave no room for an argument as to the relative truthfulness of public men and Washington correspondents.

During the closing days of the exciting extra session in October, 1893, when the Senate found itself in deadlock and unable to reach a vote on the Sherman silver purchase repeal bill passed by the House in August, one of the best known newspaper and magazine writers in the United States came to Washington to write a few characteristic articles, giving, in his own peculiarly graphic style, pen pictures of the obstinate Senate dawdling away its time while the country demanded the passage of the bill which it was earnestly hoped would restore business prosperity.

After the sessions of the Senate had been described, and Vice-President Stevenson, the presiding officer of the body, had given his views as to the power (or the lack of it) of the Senate to force the question to a vote, the writer suggested to this correspondent that he seek an interview with the president *pro tempore* of the Senate, a man who had spent many years in public life and who was undoubtedly the ablest parliamentarian on the Democratic side and the one possessing the most thorough acquaintance with the rules of the Senate. Accordingly the business cards of the two correspondents were sent to the senator by his own trusted messenger, who was in charge of the room of the committee of which the senator was chairman. Shortly the messenger returned with the information that if the correspondents would take chairs in the committee-room the senator would join them.

In about ten minutes he came. His callers rose and the writer, who had a nodding acquaintance with the senator, introduced the visiting correspondent, and with both the senator cordially shook hands. It was then explained to him that a talk was desired on the subject of the anomalous legislative status of the Repeal Bill, with a view to ascertaining why the deadlock could not be broken. The senator talked with freedom, emphasis, and volubility. He quoted precedents for a like condition of things and cited rulings which he as presiding officer had made in similar cases.

During the interview the senator's messenger, an intelligent man who was formerly prominent in politics and in the legislature of a southern state, sat near, where he heard every word that was said, and a congressman was also present, impatiently anxious to take the senator away to keep an appointment. Two or three times the congressman coughed and brought himself to the attention of the senator, who said, "All right, judge, in a moment." The interview continued for upwards of twenty minutes, the senator talking all the time and occasionally answering questions put to him by his callers.

At an opportune moment the correspondent who was a stranger to the senator put to him the question that all the time had been trembling on his tongue, by directly asking the reason why Vice-President Stevenson, as presiding officer of the Senate and presumably in favor of the Repeal Bill, could not cut off debate by refusing to recognize the opposition senators, and arbitrarily put the question to a vote. Rising from his chair, his little eyes growing smaller and brighter, his lips curling to an angle that reversed the curl of his long, rat-tail, tawny mustache, and drawing up his shoulders in that amusing manner so characteristic of him when instructing the Republican senators in the principles of parliamentary law, the senator brought his fist down upon the table and said, "Because, sir, I don't believe he would live to accomplish it. Certainly he would not be permitted to do such a thing."

This the senator repeated, and explained that he meant by it that if any presiding officer should attempt thus to override the will of the minority he would be dragged from his high place and prevented by physical force from putting the question to a vote. Before making this statement the senator was asked why it was that Vice-President Morton had been unable to put the Force Bill to a vote in the Fifty-first Congress, when the Republican party was clamoring for it. "Why," said the senator in his most impressively solemn tones, "simply because he couldn't. No one but God could have invested him with the authority, and I question whether he could get it even from that high source."

After this statement had also been explained and amplified there were a few words of polite leave-taking and the impatient congressman was permitted to go away with the senator.

The following day the interview was published in the New York *Sun*, conspicuously, as it deserved to be, and the senator was frightened at his words, which had sounded so brave in the privacy of the committee-room. Rising in his place in the Senate, he denied having made the remark that the presiding officer would not live to put the question to a vote if he attempted it, and then, encouraged, apparently, by the approving nods of his colleagues around him, actually denied that he had been interviewed at all! He admitted that a reporter whom he had never seen before met him in the corridor as he was hurrying to his committee-room and asked him a few questions about the Senate deadlock, which he answered offhand and in the report of which he had been entirely misquoted. The Senate listened to the denial with great solemnity, the messenger who had been present at the interview looking as solemn as the others, and the able senator took his seat with a smile that seemed to say, "Well, I have proved two more newspaper correspondents to be liars"—as indeed, in the minds of many of his hearers, he probably had succeeded in doing.

There are indications that the policy of secrecy is to be abandoned by the McKinley administration. The president early set a good example by assigning a day for meeting all the representatives of the newspapers at the capital, by attending the dinner of The Gridiron Club, composed of forty Washington correspondents, and by letting it be known that the reporters are at liberty to call upon him and the members of his cabinet for information on public affairs. The officials of his administration have stated that they are at home to newspaper correspondents during business hours, and there are other signs that the era of friendliness between public men and newspaper reporters will be restored with the return of general prosperity to the country, unless, indeed, the good resolutions of the new cabinet officials are forgotten with the coming of the new year, as, unfortunately, they are quite apt to be.

ELECTRICITY IN THE THEATER.

BY GEORGE HELI GUY.

THE stage is a microcosm, and on it, within a very narrow and limited space, one has to reproduce, as closely as conditions will allow, with the utmost approach to absolute fidelity, the real conditions of society, of natural scenery, of disaster, and of the course of nature in the seasons and under all the variations of storm and calm. Obviously a very subtle and delicate agent, dispensing with bulk in its mechanism, cleanly in its character, and invisible in its means of application, is necessary to meet these conditions in a manner which will best attain the result of perfect illusion; and this exacting requirement is more adequately met by electricity than by any other means at present at the command of the stage manager.

It is a well-known fact that the first theaters had no need of artificial illumination, as the performance took place in the day and there was no necessity for stage lights and stage-lighting effects. It will be manifest that, as the histrionic art advanced, the use of oil and of candles was also found antagonistic to anything in any way commensurate with modern ideas of what could be attained in stage lighting. It was not until the invention and use of gas that any spectacular effects were attempted or possible, and what is known to every theatrical man as a "gas bank" made its appearance and became a recognized stage appliance and adjunct. The ease with which, from the bank, gas could be regulated, raised, and lowered invited many innovations in the matter of spectacular display. Then came the utilization of the calcium-light and the lime-light, by means of which a beam of light could be directed upon the stage to accentuate the effect of special scenes or figures. All this, however, was extremely and severely limited. The introduction of electric lighting and power has broadened the field in an illimitable degree, so that its possibilities to-day are limited only by the ingenuity of the stage electrician and the depth of the *impresario's* purse.

To the public, by far the greater part of the interest in and comprehension of the part played by electricity in the theater is centered in its application to lighting; but even a cursory investigation into the adoption of electric power in stage mechanism and accessories reveals the imminence of a sweeping revolution in power methods and the extensive subordination of manual and hydraulic energy to electricity. Even in this transitional state of theatrical methods, the uses, other than lighting, of electricity in theaters have become more numerous and important than the lay public can possibly conceive.

It is hardly necessary to say that nearly all the signaling of the stage management, the raising of the curtain, the working of the traps, etc., is done electrically. The mechanical devices employed to imitate sounds of moving ice, thunder, wind, rain, and other phenomena are located at quite a distance from the stage manager, and on the perfection of the system of electric signaling by which he commands his small army of stage hands who work them may depend the effectiveness of a whole scene.

In the best theaters the use of the telephone has been most comprehensively developed. It connects the manager with all the departments of the house. Seated in his sanctum off the box-office, he is in equally prompt and expedient touch with the treasurer, whose life is being made weary with "dead-beats" and "professionals" soliciting the privileges of a performance of which they will often be the most uncharitable and uncompromising of critics, and the Cerberus at the stage door, who has scarcely less onerous duties, keeping a stern front against too susceptible "Johnnies" and taking charge of the current of outside

business that sets toward the back of the house from morning to midnight.

The telephone also enables the manager to speak with the engineer who regulates the steam effects on the stage, the temperature of the stage and the auditorium, and the general ventilation of the building. The electrician may be consulted when there are fluctuations or interruptions in the supply of current, or instructed to turn on an extra bank of ornamental lights inside the house when the sight of the legend "Standing Room Only" in the lobby warms the managerial heart. When there is "big line" at the box-office, the manager may telephone to the stage manager to hold back the ringing up of the curtain, which saves those already seated from being disturbed when the play begins, and the late-comers from disappointment.

One specially interesting use of the telephone in the theater is that made by the physician attending the play. He leaves his seat number at the box-office, so that if he is called up during the performance he may be immediately warned by an usher. He can thus find out whether the case to which he may be summoned is urgent, or whether he can go back and enjoy the rest of the play.

In quite a number of instances the telephone as well as the telegraph has recently been used on the stage, and made to take a part in the plot of the play. How effectively this feature can be employed is seen in Bronson Howard's "Henrietta," which seems to hold a long lease on the public favor. In this connection may be mentioned also the advantage to which the telephone has been turned by a Russian conjurer in giving a demonstration of the ostensible wonders of "second sight." His apparatus consisted of two very sensitive telephones, a little larger than a twenty-five-cent piece and about one third of an inch thick. This tiny metallic box contained an electromagnet, and its lid represented the diaphragm. The conductors formed a somewhat flexible semi-circle, which by a light spring kept the receivers close to the ear. The wires were then carried down the body, hidden in the clothing, and out by the soles of the feet to the carpet, under which the connections were secretly disposed. The receivers and their retaining clamp were completely concealed by a wig, in conjunction with a plentiful supply of whiskers. After being blindfolded, the man was led to various points in the auditorium, and, with his back to the audience, quickly made in each case the necessary connection with the battery. He was then called upon to read a letter or describe various articles laid on a distant table. The letter or the articles were so placed that a confederate, who had a transmitter close to his mouth, could easily see them by peering through a small orifice. He communicated to the medium in a low voice the necessary particulars, which were repeated, to the edification and no slight astonishment of the auditors.

The telephone is also used to a great extent for the ordering of public tickets, to be called for at the office. A clever electrical system has been introduced which obviates the many clumsy features of the usual plan of selling tickets for one performance in several blocks, each block being in charge of an attendant at different points of the city. In the old method large batches of seats were often left on hand which under the new plan might have been disposed of. In this system all the stations are connected electrically. Each station has duplicate electrical apparatus, and a sale at one station is instantly recorded at all the other stations and at the box-office.

The fire-alarm system of the theater is operated entirely by electricity. Signal or alarm boxes are distributed throughout the house, one being respectively on the stage, in the flies, the auditorium, the box-office, the bill room, the carpenter's shop, and the cellar. All these are in circuit with the adjacent fire station. Many theaters now have automatic alarms, with thermostatic attachments, which give their own warning to the fire station as soon as their surrounding temperature rises above a certain point. No risks, however, are taken. Each connection is tested every evening before

the performance by communication with the fire department, and a response must be received. A fire patrol is always on guard, and during every performance the whole house is patrolled. One part of the duty of this officer is to watch the treatment and handling of the fire effects on the stage. Another unrecognized but none the less real and exacting task which nightly engages much of his attention is the picking up of lighted cigarette stumps behind the curtain. The law now compels a theater to publish on each of its programs the position of the fire doors serving as exits on every floor of the building. The fire patrol must see that these doors are closed, but not locked, throughout the performance.

After the fearful fire at the Ring Theater, in Vienna in 1881, in which five hundred lives were lost, several European countries promulgated certain regulations for promoting the safety of audiences in case of incipient fire. One of these was that every theater be supplied with a sheet-iron curtain, by which, in case of necessity, the auditorium could be completely isolated from the stage. This curtain, which was enormously heavy, had to be counterbalanced by massive iron weights; but so evenly was the weight distributed that the screen could be raised or lowered instantly by the pressure of a button controlling an electromagnetic adjustment. The first theater in Europe to use the electric iron curtain was the Comédie Française, in Paris, and the installation was made by an American electric company. This curtain is worked by a two-horse-power motor, and can be lowered at a maximum rate of four and one half feet in a second. In many theaters the iron curtain is now superseded by one of asbestos, which is infinitely less cumbrous and equally serviceable.

One of the boldest applications of electricity in theatrical operations is that made in the electric turntable stage of the Munich Court Theater. Throughout the stage, both in the "under machinery" and in the "top machinery," the actuating motive power is a combination of manual labor, counterweights, and electricity. The actual "turntable consists of three floors, *i. e.*, the stage floor, the "first mezzanine," and the "second mezzanine," firmly framed together. The whole of this structure rests on a number of rollers, which run on tramlines circular in plan. The turntable can be easily moved around to any position. The building of this pretentious structure was undertaken, it is said, with a view to filling the requirements of Wagnerian operas, which involve many and rapid changes of scenery. It gives particular facilities for mounting several scenes at the same time on different sections, and then moving them quickly into position.

Germany has the credit of being exceptionally progressive in the utilization of electricity in stage-craft, and much of this advance is the outcome of the enterprise and ingenuity of Herr Lautenschlaeger, the inventor of the structure just described. Herr Lautenschlaeger has adopted electric power for moving a great deal of gear in "aerial" work, and many minor appliances which facilitate intercommunication on the stage. In addition to this he works the whole of the heavy property elevators, as well as the rapid passenger elevators in the theaters under his direction, electrically. Nearly all these appliances can be operated from a central regulating board, at the side of the proscenium opening, where the engineer is in good view of the scenery.

Doubtless electric power will soon, in many instances, even in America, take the place of hydraulics in stage-land. Electric motors would serve equally well for both "top machinery" and "under machinery," and theater managers would be able to score many points of economy by a wider employment of electric energy. In point of fact it is now proposed to build in this country an "electric" theater, in which everything behind the curtain will be operated by electricity. The drops, borders, curtains, the side scenes, and in fact every mechanism which is now actuated by stage hands will be under the direction of the electrician at the prompt wing. This will be accomplished by a series of small but powerful electric motors, each working

on an independent circuit and all within easy control of the operator at the switchboard.

One of the best known instances of the employment of the electric motor on the stage is that in which the finish of a horse-race is simulated. The scene is most realistic. All the lights are extinguished, and, after a few moments, out of the gloom the flying horses appear at the back of the stage in a blaze of light. They seem to be straining every nerve and fairly flying past the landscape. Fences and trees disappear behind them with startling rapidity, and when at last the finish is near one of the horses gradually works forward to the judge's stand and comes in winner by a neck. The secret of the illusion is that the picket fence behind which the horses appear to be running, and the scenery beyond, are set in motion by electric motors, giving the effect of rapid motion of the animals in a contrary direction. The horses are galloping over a revolving drum, and instead of moving forward are actually secured by wire-rope traces. In Dumas' play "Le Capitaine Paul," the sails of the good ship *Ranger* swell before a lively breeze all through the third act. The bellying of the canvas, which is very real, is produced by an electric fan blowing across the stage.

The resources of stage music are immeasurably augmented by the electric organ now found in many theaters. The *console* is portable, so that the organist can place his keyboard in any part of the building and produce the effect of music actually on the stage, receding, advancing, or dying out in the far distance. This instrument, besides its wonderful flexibility, has exceptional power of expression.

In the matter of ventilation, the electric motor is preeminently the agency to be employed, but it has not yet reached the theaters of this country, concerning the ventilation of the majority of which it can only be said that it is lamentably, if not shamefully, behind the times. Many public buildings are fitted with capacious shafts through which fresh air is drawn and impure air expelled by blowers worked electrically. It is inevitable that before long this system will be adopted in theaters.

Another direction in which electricity must soon come to the relief of the half-stifled winter audiences of American theaters is in the method of heating the house. Just as the cool weather of this fall set in, a paragraph appeared in a New York daily paper on the unqualified pleasure with which a theater performance could be enjoyed under the then existing atmospheric conditions. The item continued:

> Now the temperature of the theaters is comfortable and the ventilation good. Within a week or two the managers will turn on the steam, and the same old parboiled, half-cooked feeling that takes possession of the audiences during the winter months will set in. There is never any escape from that until the 1st of June, when again the steam is turned off. It will never be abated or varied during all that time. To the men in charge of the heating of the theaters there is no middle course. When audiences need air in the winter time there is no easier way of getting it than by opening the doors and allowing the cold wind to blow on the back of their heads. It is the absence of the steam that makes this season the most agreeable in the year for the theater-goers, so far as their personal comfort is concerned.

This, though perfectly true, is a barbarous admission to have to make. Steam will soon be considered out of date for theater heating purposes, but in the meantime theater managers have no excuse whatever for the unwholesome and distressing overheating of their auditoriums. At a merely nominal cost a thermostatic device could be attached to the plant which would be self-regulating and keep the air of the auditorium at an equable and agreeable temperature, in spite of the heating system attendant. But in England they have a still better way. Many London theaters use electric radiators. By this simple and convenient means the whole clumsy and expensive plant of steam-heating pipes and maintenance is done away with. In one case the ordinary heating equipment was out of gear, but the house had to be warmed for the evening performance. An order was given to an electric firm at eleven in the morning, and by six in the evening the theater was being heated electrically. The im-

provement in the quality of the air and the comfort of the audience was so marked that the steam system in that theater has never been repaired, and electric heating is now the vogue in some London theaters. The atmosphere of the auditorium is kept sweet and genial, and "theater headache" is a thing of the past.

The lighting system of a theater may be divided into four parts, the front of the house, the lobby, the auditorium, and the stage. The front of the house and the lobby each has its own switchboard, entirely independent of the rest of the house. The lighting in both the auditorium and the stage is controlled from the stage switchboard. The ingenuity of the theater electrician is every season more severely taxed to devise showy and attractive placards of light for the nightly heralding of the play holding the boards. Frequently several signs on one house front are made interchangeable, and they are flashed in and out by means of a keyboard. The lighting of the foyer lends itself to most artistic treatment, and some of the buildings of late construction exhibit in their entrance halls a perfect blending of light and architectural beauty. A notable example is the foyer of the Brooklyn Montauk Theater. It is decorated in rich crimson, and is designed to represent a drawing-room of the time of Louis XV. The side walls are paneled in exquisite and delicate relief work, and the beauty of the apartment is enhanced by the diffused light filtering through semi-opaque glass shields in the ceiling and beneath the cornice.

Formerly in the lighting of the auditorium the number of lamps to be installed was the first consideration, their distribution being a secondary matter. Now the greatest attention is paid to securing the maximum decorative or merely illuminative effect from every bank of lamps. In other words, the lighting of the auditorium is now on a strictly scientific basis. To show the tendency in this direction, the electrician of one of the New York theaters was recently asked to devise a new lighting scheme for the interior of the house. This he did, with the result that, although the number of lamps in circuit was considerably reduced, a much greater light efficiency was secured.

Since the first stage arc was used as a focusing lamp in the old California Theater in San Francisco, in 1878, the progress in stage lighting has more than kept pace with other branches of electrical work. Its resources and its range of effects are infinite. But not even casual reference to this subject can be made without mentioning the name of Mr. J. C. Mayrhofer, to whose fertile inventive faculty a large majority of the novel methods and designs in the useful, decorative, and spectacular lighting of the American stage are due. As a proof of Mr. Mayrhofer's ability in this field it may be mentioned that recently some of his effects, devised quite in the ordinary way of business, to illustrate certain sensational episodes in a coal mine, have been taken to England by special request and exhibited before wildly enthusiastic audiences at the largest theaters in the heart of the mining districts.

WHAT IS SOCIOLOGY?

BY C. BOUGLÉ.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "LA REVUE DE PARIS."

LET us choose a small town. In order to fasten our ideas we will call it Saint Paul. What perspectives does Saint Paul offer to sociologic eyes? Let us make a rapid tour of the town. We perceive among the inhabitants a sort of family air, and, entering into conversation with one and another of them, observe that they have the same way of speaking and even hold the same opinions. In a word, from contact with these people we are quickly made to feel the unity of the place. This ensemble of traits common to its inhabitants, which distinguishes it from other towns, we can

study by itself; this will be taking up the work of sociology already.

But as well as the resemblances which unite them, the differences which separate the people of Saint Paul offer us objects of study. Enumerating the passers-by that I observe in an afternoon, I may classify them roughly as musicians, bicyclists, devotees, men of the world, soldiers, workmen, etc. That the individuals thus classed are not examples of these classes only, that the quality of soldier or bicyclist does not exhaust all their qualities, goes without saying. They do not belong to a single social circle, but to several which interpenetrate one another. It is rare that a person comes from only one society.

Does a society exist wherever individuals are found assembled? That depends on what you mean by assembled. The juxtaposition of people seated by chance beside each other in a diligence is not enough to constitute a society. If it has not changed in any way the state of mind of the individuals, and each one of them continues to think just as if he were alone, then individual psychology is sufficient to explain what takes place in each of them; sociology has nothing to do here. But let any incident whatever, the appearance of a carbine, or merely the sight of a rival diligence, make their hearts beat in unison, turn the thoughts toward the same end, organize the activities, then a society is born.

Whatever be the passing emotion or durable influence, rule expressly formulated or only felt, obligation or imitation, love or hate, any place where from the coexistence of individuals, however few they may be, spring new phenomena which would not be born without that coexistence, a field is opened to sociology.

In the genus thus defined it will be necessary to find the species, and this search may proceed from the consideration of characteristics, exterior and most superficial, at first sight. For example, since all society consists of a relation between unities, ought we not first to take their number into consideration? The distinction between great and small societies is more fruitful than one might think and more easy to forget. The number of individuals present, in increasing the number of their possible combinations, multiplies the complexity of the social relations.

Likewise the question of time. In matters of social relations it is not just to say that time has nothing to do with the matter. You comprehend that a society united for an hour about a *table d'hôte* can scarcely extend between its members anything but slight and fragile bands. Oppose to this society of a day a durable society, and the bands it imposes are almost unbreakable.

Furthermore, of how great importance is the similitude or the diversity of the unities that a society encloses. You understand that the social relations might take very different forms according as the individuals in connection were of the same race, nation, or business, or of different businesses, hostile nations, or irreducible races.

Still further, do the individuals belong wholly to the society, as one belonged to certain corporations of the Middle Ages, or do they belong to it only on certain sides of their activity, as one belongs to a club? Is their society unorganized like an electoral body or organized like a regiment? Does the organization subordinate them or put them on a footing of equality? Upon all these questions depend both the quantity and the quality of social relations.

But a science could not content itself with classifying forms; it wishes to discover between certain given phenomena certain constant relations, and prove that the latter vary as do the former. It is this that sociology would attempt to do in observing the consequences of the forms that it will have classified.

Leaving to metaphysics, or at least reserving for the end of the science, the determination of the total influence of society in itself, we content ourselves with proving first that, wherever certain social forms are given, the different activities realized through them are modified in consequence.

Let us observe the phenomena in which the different activities of men manifest and incorporate themselves in some sort —

riches, usages, monuments and codes, dogmas and poems. We shall find here the mark of different social forms, and, for example, of the number of individuals or their heterogeneity, of the degree or the quality of their organization. In a word, we shall find that economic phenomena as well as judicial, moral as well as religious or esthetic, vary from the forms of society.

The interest taken by each individual in the common product diminishes proportionally to the increase in the number of sharers; the simple extension of communistic association relaxes and weakens in some sort its strength. Fourier fixed at fifteen hundred the maximum number of the members of his phalanstery.

Taking into account not only their quantity but their heterogeneity or their organization, analogous relations appear. For example, do not the principal differences between the economy of the family and that of the city amount to this, that it is a question of providing for the needs, in one case, of unities relatively homogeneous joined by blood, united in the patriarchal order, and hardly distinguishing their private interests from the common needs; in the other case of unities relatively heterogeneous, already more conscious of their private wants than of the common interests? An economist proved recently that most of the economic phenomena which are familiar to us—credit, capital, commerce, properly speaking—suppose the existence of very large groups of heterogeneous unities, organized and centralized, and that most of the errors of political economy consist in the application of certain economic categories to epochs where their conditions of existence have not yet appeared.

The judicial categories are submitted to analogous dependency. More clearly even than the transformations of economy, the transformations of law reveal the influences of the quantity, for example, or of the heterogeneity of the associated unities.

Although less easily observable, the transformations morals owe to social forms are not less profound. Is it not a fact that the more narrow a group becomes the more numerous, detailed, and urgent are the prescriptions it applies to individuals? Does not the mere enlargement of the group force it to limit its demands to more general and more abstract rules?

Likewise the number and nature of the rules vary according as the individual belongs wholly, body and soul, to the society that formulates them, or belongs to several societies at the same time. Thus the different societies on which we are dependent limit and sometimes neutralize each other, so much so that multiplicity of social circles has been considered the constitutive factor of the independence of personalities.

More than their multiplicity, the homogeneity or heterogeneity of their members and the stability or instability of their organization color diversely the morals. In an open, mixed society, where people of very different races and conditions intermingle, morals risk being uncertain, variable, and lax; on the contrary, they will be more rigid, inflexible, and, as it were, petrified in an exclusive society which repels every heterogeneous element.

Social forms even shape religion. There are necessary differences between a religion of sect and a religion of state. In indirect ways the mere extension of the number of believers may act upon beliefs in rendering them less particular, less precise, less concrete. That the masterpieces of art are often shaped by the forms of society is a truth a hundred times demonstrated to-day.

All these examples suffice to give an idea of the considerable number of relations that might be discovered between the forms of society and its accompaniments, between the different relations which unite individuals and their different activities. When once the social forms are classified, to study the effects produced by their different kinds upon a branch of our activities considered apart, or inversely, taking one of these social forms by itself, to study the effects it produces upon the different branches of our activities, this is the task of sociology.

But admitting that these difficult tasks

are finally finished, will it be sufficient to unite a certain number of individuals, during a certain lapse of time and under a certain hierarchy, in order to obtain a symphony like those of Beethoven or dogmas like those of Christianity? Does not history meet with societies equally dense or equally heterogeneous which do not enjoy laws, morals, or economies absolutely similar? It would be astonishing if it were otherwise; are not very many influences—all those of nature on one side, all those of spirit on the other—capable sometimes of seconding, sometimes of counteracting, the influence of social forms?

Doubtless, but the statement of these interferences is not made in order to disprove sociology; is not each science content to study one side of things? Sociology does not undertake to show the reason of all historic phenomena; it wishes only to make apparent to what degree social forms modify them. It will readily admit that numerous causes, material or ideal, concur for the transformations of society, but it limits its ambition to knowing systematically one of them. It does not pretend to be, in itself, the philosophy of history; it would wish to be, more modestly, a social science.

To merit this title it must not content itself with showing the consequences of social forms; it must also discover the causes. To tell the truth, to attempt to fix the causes of society in general would be to risk hemming yourself in with unverifiable hypotheses. Here, too, sociology must bravely leave to metaphysics, or reserve at least for the end of the science, the questions of origin, and take society as it is given. Society being given, what forces modify its forms? Such questions as this can be answered by observation.

The idea of race has long ruled history, and it is not strange that, after it has been attempted to explain almost all the great historic events by the antagonism of races, the attempt should be made to explain the different social forms in the same way. But without doubt there is a place to limit the value of these ethnographic considerations. It is easy to see that among very different races analogous social forms might prosper, or, reciprocally, contrary social forms among related races. Even more, in the same society individuals of very different blood might find themselves closely united. If race explains certain characteristics of societies it cannot be held responsible for all of them.

The configuration and climatic situation of a country also exercise an action upon the multiplicity and the organization of the social relations. Yet, without doubt, upon different soils analogous social forms may flourish, or different social forms upon similar soils. The same shores have seen, in their turn, societies large or small, inorganic or organized, democratic or aristocratic. Is this saying that terrestrial forms are incapable of modifying social forms? No, but that they are not alone in modifying them. Besides, nature acts upon society oftenest only through the spirit; the spirit acts upon society of itself, with its own forces, needs or tastes, feelings or ideas.

The action of the needs called material—which does not prevent them from being psychologic forces besides—is doubtless the most striking of all. The effort of men to produce riches exercises a thousand pressures upon the constitution of societies. Social density depends closely upon modes of economic production; one form of collective ownership tends to increase it, while another form of private ownership tends to diminish it. In the same way, does not an agricultural system, in opposition to an industrial system, tend to limit the extension of the community? On the other hand, does not the development of an industrial system, in carrying specialization to infinity, increase the heterogeneity of the social unities? Or does not the extension of commerce impel the most heterogeneous individuals to unite, in spite of differences of race and language, into an organized society? The so-called materialist philosophy of history has proved by a hundred examples that economy exercises upon social forms actions otherwise determinant than those of race or soil. Where this philosophy creates for itself an illusion, is when it believes it has found

in this determination the only key of all social being.

It is necessary to measure, after the action of economic forces, the action of moral forces upon social forms. For example, important economic movements corresponded to the emancipation of the slaves; yet it is true that in this matter the last word rested and rests to-day with conscience. Conscience may go bravely against our surest economic interests, and we are paid, or, to be more exact, we pay for the knowledge. Rights and duties may sometimes second, sometimes oppose the action of interests upon social forms. It is especially in the religious form that beliefs have thus led the social world.

Art may claim the same capacities in its turn; it also intermingles, multiplies, enlarges the social groups, and more than once in modern times, as in antiquity, esthetic communions have surpassed or outlived political associations. No one activity of the mind has the monopoly of social action. From the humblest to the noblest, from those called material to those called ideal, all may cooperate in the modifications of society. Thus, after having sought in the transformations of economy, law, morals, religion, and art the consequences of these modifications, we seek there their causes.

But is there not here a circle? Can the same phenomenon be at once the cause and the consequence of another? First, in a social matter nothing is more frequent than such actions and reactions. Furthermore, we took care when we passed in review some of the consequences of society to remark that other influences might interfere with any given one, and that it alone was far from explaining all of economy or morals, religion or art. Even as we recognize in our various activities something more than simple consequences of the modifications of social forms, we reserve to ourselves the right of seeking there causes of these same modifications.

What does geography do to become a science? It is not content to describe; it classifies terrestrial forms, basins and bays, peaks and plateaus. It studies their effects, it seeks in physical conditions reasons for the distribution of inhabitants and the position of cities. It looks, on the other hand, for the reasons of geographical phenomena themselves. In a word, to place yourself at the geographic point of view is to observe terrestrial forms, their consequences, and their causes. In the same way, to place yourself at the sociologic point of view will be to observe social forms, their consequences, and causes.

Thus when we have classified the different social circles which cross each other in Saint Paul, when we have observed the effects they produce upon the entire life of its inhabitants, when we have sought in this same life all that may modify the quantity or the quality of these same circles, then and then only will we have a sociologic knowledge of Saint Paul.

And, if we had such a knowledge of Saint Paul, would we not possess sociology entire? For as Claude Bernard has said, "If I knew anything thoroughly, I would know everything."

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE SOUTHERN NEGRO.

BY W. T. HEWETSON.

IN considering the peculiar social life of the negroes of the South, the usual broad distinction between life in the city and in the country should be observed. The negro's propensity to imitation, which has so frequently been remarked upon, is in the city carried to a ludicrous extreme. Indeed negro society in the city is merely a reflection, or rather a caricature, of white society.

If, then, we would see negro society in its most interesting phases, we must leave the city for the country. We must visit the negro in his rural home, make one with

him at his "cawn shuckies," funerals, and festivals, and join him, torch in hand, as he follows the hounds through forest and fen in pursuit of the possum or the coon.

There is not much variety in the houses of the southern negro. The prevailing type is a one-room log cabin, caulked with clay and roofed with boards. A rude stone chimney leans heavily against one end, and a door and one or two small windows admit a modicum of light and air to the gloomy interior. In the dooryard a number of shaggy dogs and half-clothed children are tumbling about on the hard, bare ground, in the most friendly confusion, while a half-dozen pigs, of the variety that are "all grunt and no bacon," go prowling about. The fence which surrounds this seriocomic scene of contented wretchedness, if, perchance, that useless barrier has not long since disappeared to feed the great open fireplace within, is bedecked with a parti-colored array of blankets and old clothes. A perspective of pig-sty and cattle-shed completes the sketch.

However, we would be much mistaken if we pictured to ourselves the inmates of these cabins sitting in sackcloth and ashes, bewailing their wretched lot. We are too apt to attribute to others our own sentiments, and to conclude that because we would feel oppressed in their circumstances they must feel so too. Were we to sit down in any of the miserable abodes in the so-called black belt, we would no doubt see much to call forth our pity, but we could not fail to observe also that the general atmosphere is one of cheerful content.

Slavery has, perhaps, left no deeper trace anywhere than in the domestic life of the freedmen. Under an institution which permitted the separation of husband from wife, forcibly and forever, there could be no stability of the marital relations; nor could the obligations of parents to children or of children to parents be enforced where the mother was sent to labor in the field while her babe was left to be cared for by others, or to grow up, like Topsy, without any attention whatever. In fact, the family, in its truest and most sacred sense, has been grafted on negro society only since emancipation. It is not surprising, therefore, if it still lacks many of those religious and moral restraints which make it the keystone of Anglo-Saxon civilization.

Among the consequences growing out of this imperfection in their domestic arrangements may be mentioned the peculiar position of the negro women—a position of greater relative prominence, perhaps, than has ever been occupied by the women of any other race. Besides enjoying absolute equality with the men in all social affairs, they work side by side with them in the oyster houses and tobacco factories, as well as in the cotton and tobacco fields. It is no uncommon sight to see a mother chopping wood by her door or plowing in the field, while her children are tumbling in the dirt near by. As a natural result their homes are neglected, their children allowed to grow up in rags and dirt. The women themselves are often untidy in dress, uncleanly in habits; many of them smoke and rub snuff. In brief, they are strangers to those graces and accomplishments which should make them the chief factors in the uplifting of their people. It should not be forgotten, however, that in the majority of cases their condition is not of their own making; and it would be unjust to the negro women of the South not to add that there are among them many excellent housekeepers—women of true refinement and elevated character.

There is perhaps no more favorable place in which to study negro character and manners than the camp-meeting. This time-honored institution is no less social than religious in its nature. It is usually held in a partly cleared grove, under the auspices of the local clergy. Hither the colored population of the surrounding region flock, coming on foot, in carriages and wagons, in ox-carts and mule-carts, on horseback and mule-back—in short, by every conceivable mode of locomotion. Their dress is as varied as their vehicles. Indeed the negroes of the South are of all people the most cosmopolitan in the matter of dress. Clothes of every imaginable style, color, and "previous condition of servitude" are

AN AVERAGE NEGRO FARMHOUSE.

pressed into use, so that in this particular they present as great a variety as the beggars in the nursery rime.

As we approach the grove what a medley of sounds breaks upon our hearing!—the neighing of horses, the bellowing of cattle, the seesaw braying of mules, the laughter and screams of children, and joined with these a perfect babble of human voices, the whole forming a discordant din such as no human ear ever heard elsewhere. Entering the grounds, we pass bands of children, climbing, tumbling, romping, like so many troops of monkeys; gawky young fellows awkwardly making love to dusky beauties; groups of brawny men discussing abstruse points of theology with as much zeal and more harmony, perhaps, than a body of learned divinity doctors. Here and there a gossiping company of old "uncles" and "aunties" may be seen reviving the memories of bygone days. If we had time to stay we might gather from their talk a rare collection of folk-lore, stories of ghosts and haunted houses, and family legends of slavery times.

It would be impossible to remain long at a negro camp-meeting without coming across one of those unique combinations of garrulity and ignorance, the colored preacher. We could recognize him without an introduction. His huge brass-rimmed spectacles, his battered stiff hat, his long black coat, somewhat faded and worn, and his cotton umbrella, tied with a string around the center, have been made familiar to us by the artist's pencil. He is usually self-appointed, beginning his clerical career as an exhorter and gradually assuming the title of preacher. His creed is so unlike that of any recognized religious body that it would doubtless puzzle him to tell to what denomination he belongs.

The maxim "Knowledge is power" has little application to the colored preacher. His very ignorance is ofttimes his greatest strength; for it has frequently been observed, especially in rural communities, that those preachers who have the most education have the least following. The reason is found in the negro's simplicity of character,

THE HEAD OF THE FAMILY.

A MELON PARTY.

a trait which leads him to avoid as far as possible all formality and restraint. Even his pastor, if he would have his church filled, must be a "jolly good fellow," giving himself no airs, but meeting his people without the semblance of affectation or reserve.

The colored preacher's sermon is a curiosity in homiletics. Like the contents of the witches' caldron in "Macbeth," it is made up of the most heterogeneous elements—of words and phrases taken from every available source and loosely joined together. But while he borrows freely without credit, he can no more be accused of plagiarism than the compiler of a dictionary, so different is the combination from anything ever before produced. His love for high-sounding and long-tailed words is as remarkable as his congregation's fondness for "shouting"; so that, between the exhortations of the preacher and the hearty responses of his hearers, a religious service might easily be mistaken for a drill in vocal gymnastics.

One of the chief features of every negro gathering of a social character is the singing. A musical people they undoubtedly are. Not a few have exhibited a high degree of talent in this respect; as, for example, Blind Tom, whose performances on the piano have delighted so many cultured audiences. The darky fiddler, once so prominent a feature of social gatherings, is still sought after in some communities. The popularity of so-called "Jubilee" singers and negro minstrels seems to increase with time. Many of the most popular songs in this country, such as "Old Kentucky Home," "The Fatal Wedding," and "Listen to the Mocking Bird," were composed by negroes.

For the origin of most of their songs we must go back to the days of slavery. Just as the laboring classes of England during the seventeenth century found expression for their struggles and sufferings in the popular ballads of the time, so the American slave gave vent to his afflictions and heartaches in song. He sang of his griefs—and they were many—of hardships and oppression, of loss of home, of separation from friends and relatives. In these songs one cannot fail to perceive a certain plaintive melody

YOUNG AFRO-AMERICA.

that seems to breathe forth centuries of patient suffering. But the songs of the negro were not all dictated by the tragic muse. Even in slavery there were bright, sun-kissed openings in the clouds of sorrow that darkened his life; and there is no better evidence of the natural cheerfulness and gaiety of his character than the comic and festive songs with which he was wont to celebrate these interspaces in his grief. The purely religious songs of the negro are often senseless combinations of words set to music, having neither rime nor meter. They abound in vain repetitions, and are usually strung out to an interminable length.

It would be strange if a people so imaginative were not superstitious. Indeed the negro is the most credulous of creatures. He plants his crops, builds his house, treats his diseases, and, in short, regulates all the principal concerns of his life in accordance with some mysterious sign. The blacksnake, the ground-hog, and the whippoorwill are prophets, in whose forecasts he plants unwavering faith. The more im-

MELONS FOR TWO.

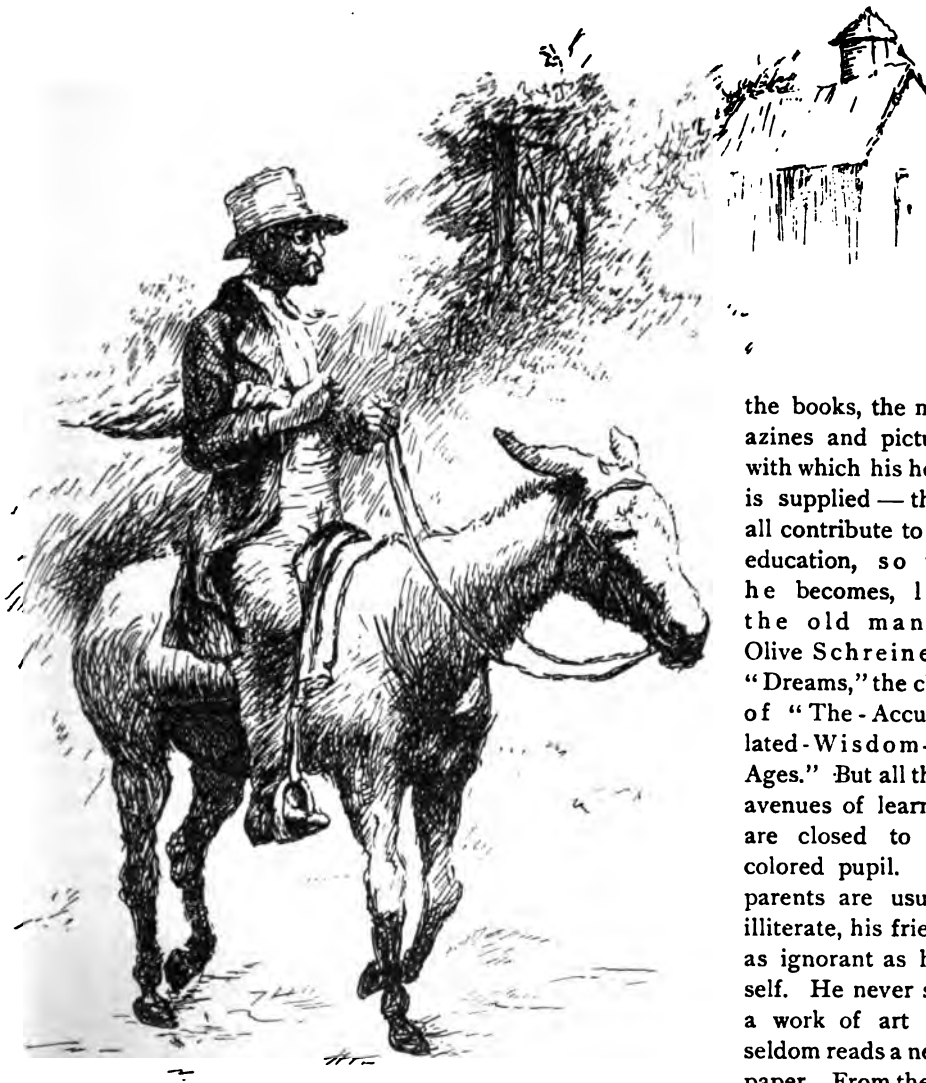
pressible carry about their persons a rabbit's foot, a piece of red flannel, or some charm, to ward off disease or woo the favor of providence. There is scarcely one who has not his story to tell of ghost or haunted house. Perhaps the most terrifying of their beliefs are those connected with the presence of death. If a whippoorwill should sound its mournful note near the window of a sick chamber all hope of the patient's recovery is relinquished; when death occurs all the pictures in the house are turned with their faces to the wall, and should any one be so hapless as to see the corpse in a mirror, by that sign his own doom is irrevocably sealed.

As might be supposed, many of their superstitions are intermixed with their religion. Their old men not only dream dreams, but, if their own testimony is to be credited, they also see visions. Some of them appear to rival the Maid of Orleans in the number and variety of their apocalyptical experiences. One white-haired seer professes with great earnestness to have been visited, Belshazzar-like, by a mysterious handwriting on the wall, which, strange to say, although he is wholly illiterate, he found no difficulty in deciphering. Others tell of encounters with the devil, more terrible even than those of St. Dunstan in his narrow smithy.

Those who describe the negro indiscriminately as a lazy do-nothing, content with a life of ignominious ease and complacent wretchedness, show little knowledge of his true character. Booker Washington comes nearer the truth when he says, adapting a phrase from Shakespeare, "Toil is the badge of all his tribe." In the cotton and tobacco fields, in factory and mine, on railroads and public highways, wherever there is hard, rough work to be done, the negro is relied upon to do it. He furnishes the brawn and muscle in the South to-day, just as he did in the days of slavery. Why, then, it may be asked, has he so little to show for all his labor? It is because he has no idea of economy. His meager income is in part wasted on candy, tobacco, and gewgaws; much of it goes to feed the insatiable till of the rumseller, and not a little is eaten up by secret societies, of which often he contributes to as many as there are days in the week.

Education, which alone could be expected to overcome these evils, is still in a very imperfect state in the South. Owing to lack of funds the public schools are kept open on an average of only ninety days in the year. Some towns of from three to five thousand inhabitants are wholly dependent upon private schools. The common school teachers receive from $8 to $20 a month. Poorly paid, they are also poorly trained; so that it is a common remark, "Any one can teach a negro school." If a pupil is bright he soon learns all his teacher knows, after which, of course, he leaves school. Then, if there is no better institution near, he becomes discouraged, gives up the struggle for an education, marries,

THE FIDDLER.



REV. EZEKIEL MOSES.

rents land, mortgages his crops, comes out in debt at the end of the year, and, after a few ineffectual efforts to better his condition, sinks back into a life of despairing misery.

But this is not all: the work of the schools, while deficient, is rendered still more inadequate by the home surroundings of the pupil. This cannot be better illustrated than by comparing the home influences of the white with those of the colored child. The former absorbs knowledge, unconsciously, from his environment. The instruction of parents, the conversation of friends and associates, the daily newspaper, the books, the magazines and pictures with which his home is supplied — these all contribute to his education, so that he becomes, like the old man in Olive Schreiner's "Dreams," the child of "The-Accumulated-Wisdom-of-Ages." But all these avenues of learning are closed to the colored pupil. His parents are usually illiterate, his friends as ignorant as himself. He never sees a work of art and seldom reads a newspaper. From the society in which he moves he derives little else than superstition, errors of speech, and false notions of men and things. Thus his mind becomes clouded and his moral nature warped.

But despite all these dark features of negro life, the colored people of the South have made commendable progress since emancipation. Their total wealth has increased from zero to approximately $250,000,000, and this too in competition with a highly civilized and well-equipped race. Over 200,000 negro farmers now hold their land free of incumbrance. In the cities, the number of negroes who own their homes

A TRIP TO THE VILLAGE.

is large and constantly increasing, amounting in some places to more than a third of the colored population. Besides successful merchants, there are, in almost every city, prosperous carpenters, tailors, brick-masons, and other craftsmen; while under the practical training of such industrial schools as those at Tuskeegee, Ala., and Hampton, Va., an army of skilled negro mechanics is slowly but surely winning its way into the manufacturing institutions of the South. The same steady improvement is noticeable in agriculture. Instead of raising "scrub" cattle, and cabbages that never come to a head, as he did a few years ago, the negro farmer is studying the chemistry of the soil and the diversification of crops, and by the aid of improved methods and implements of agriculture he is increasing the productiveness of his farm at the same time that he is lessening the cost of production. He is also learning the more important lesson of thrift and economy. Clubs or conferences are held in which the people are taught, "in a plain, simple manner, how to save money, how to farm in a better way, how to sacrifice—to live on bread and potatoes if need be—till they get out of debt and begin the buying of land." Moreover, organizations are formed for the purpose of purchasing land and escaping from the iniquitous mortgage system. In one community in Texas fifteen families, in five years, improved their houses and farms to the amount of $15,000.

Very creditable, too, is the negro's progress in matters educational. Besides com-

UNCLE BEN (ONE HUNDRED YEARS OLD) AND HIS SEVENTH WIFE.

mon schools in every state, there are 162 higher-grade institutions for colored students. The standard of education is being steadily raised, the length of the school term increased, and the teachers are receiving higher pay and more thorough preparation. The result has been that in thirty years forty per cent of the illiteracy of the race has disappeared. Hundreds of well-educated preachers, editors, lawyers, doctors, and mechanics have gone forth from these schools, and have become centers for the diffusion of useful knowledge and improved methods of living among their race. Under the same influences the negro brain is becoming adaptive and creative. Over fifty patents have been granted to negroes in recent years. Not a few full-blooded negroes have distinguished themselves in the various arts; they have occupied no mean rank as orators and as writers in the field of prose, while one gifted son of the race has recently evinced innate ability in the highest form of literature. Paul Laurence Dunbar's "Oak and Ivy" poems, with the later volume entitled "Lyrics of Lowly Life," have been favored with an extended and laudatory introduction and criticism by America's most popular novelist, Mr. Howells.

With this increase of intelligence and wealth, and as a result of it, has come social improvement. Already the outlines of a better social order are plainly visible. Old things are passing away: the "carpet-bagger" and "Kuklux" are no more; the one-room cabins are giving place to comfortable frame and brick dwellings; the people are deserting the old-style, illiterate preachers and are attaching themselves to spiritual guides more worthy of the cloth. With increase of knowledge has come in-

A TYPICAL FARM SCENE.

SEEING THE CIRCUS GO BY.

PLAYING "DABS."

crease of wants, and as their wants multiply they are resorting to industry and economy in order to satisfy them. Of course these improvements are as yet confined to certain sections, but the exception is fast becoming the rule. Under the sure and potent forces of education, industry, and religion, the negro race of the South is steadily advancing toward the highest civilization.

MEMORY.

BY VIRNA WOODS.

PALER than wreathes of mist and phantom moons,
She comes adown the glimmering stair of dreams;
Or rises from the billowy foam of streams
That flow from thought's dark caves with murmurous tunes.
And fainter is the music of her runes
Than ghostly echo of the dying wind,
Sobbing through autumn foliage seared and thinned;
And with her shadowy hand she importunes.
Dusky and dim her unbound tresses blow,
On her fair face a shade of sadness lies
And rises from the still deeps of her eyes.
And evermore her white feet come and go,
Softer than on the water falls the snow—
Her feet that trod the ways of paradise.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

WINTER ENIGMAS.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M. D.

IN a western city that can claim the championship of mischievous youngsters, an old lady of my acquaintance one day saw a pair of street arabs trying to open the door of a vacant house in her next neighborhood.

"What are you doing there, Freddie?" she asked, recognizing one of the little sinners. "Where did you get that key?"

"Mrs. W—— let me have it," said the ready-witted scamp. "She thought she forgot a broom in there."

"Let me see that. Now look here, that key was never made to fit this door; I thought there must be something wrong. Get out of this, now, and stay out."

In similar terms one often feels tempted to dismiss the hearsay theories that pretend to explain the phenomena of health and disease. They may be plausibly introduced, but they can never be made to fit the facts of experience. In winter-time, especially, the results of unprejudiced observation would present hopeless enigmas, unless the observer begins to suspect that there must be something wrong about the traditional dogmas of hygiene.

Again and again the exponents of those dogmas stumble against the paradox that grievous and drug-defying "colds" become epidemic during a protracted thaw or lingering "Indian summer," but subside when winter gets its grip on the weather clerk. Catarrhs rage in March and November, but negotiate a truce in January. The Klondike Argonauts, too, reported a plague of contagious influenzas while their sleet-storms continued to alternate with spells of warm weather, but the first frost that unhorsed the Juneau mail-carrier seemed to have floored the lung-microbes, too, and according to last accounts La Grippe had relaxed her hold. The hearsay mongers then fall back on the old fallacy about the health-destroying tendency of "variable weather." It is true that a uniform low temperature—a climate of steady, hard winter frosts, like that of Russia and northern Ontario—generally goes hand in hand with a low death-rate; but perennial summer by no means precludes epidemics of the most malignant type, and as a permanent abode Newfoundland, Vancouver, and southern Chili, with their everlasting weather changes, would be out and out preferable to Egypt and Bengal. The capricious climate of Norway and Great Britain has evolved some of the stoutest tribes of the human species. In Patagonia, near the southern terminus of our continent, the whims of the climate would drive a weather-bureau sergeant crazy; warm rains alternate with snow-whirls and sultry sunshine with antarctic ice-blasts, all in the course of one day. But that does not prevent the natives from growing seven feet high and digesting a ragout of conger-eels and boiled bulrushes.

Summing up the net result of those data, we find that a variable climate, including occasional frosts, does not prevent the enjoyment of exuberant health, while a uniform climate, excluding intervals of low temperature, implies no guaranty against the deadliest diseases—in other words, that much-maligned Jack Frost is nature's own microbe-killer, the best friend of consumptives, as well as of fever patients. Without the admission of that fact, so irreconcilable with old-school medical dogmas, a large number of yearly repeated phenomena would be wholly inexplicable.

Another enigma that cannot be unlocked with the keys of our conventional health theories is the fact that children—city children at least—are generally the first vic-

tims of contagious lung disorders. They begin to snivel and cough as soon as the snowbirds herald the advent of winter; they introduce catarrhs that spread from their playroom to the parlor and infect whole meeting-house assemblies, in spite of grace-assuring revivals. Shall we infer that the young of our species are particularly liable to the attacks of organic disorders? The very contrary is so evidently true that some humorists have denied the possibility of sickening a boy with green apples or affecting his physical comfort by barefoot races in the mud. Girls, left to the guidance of their instincts, will join the coasting orgies of their brothers, and return, soaking wet, with a reserve fund of health that would last them all winter if the snow would hold out. The neglected youngsters of our city slums manage to survive garbage picnics and coal-shed bivouacs, sitz baths in cesspools, and surfeits in the dog-days.

But winter reverses the score, not because the god of blizzards is the Moloch of our cruel climate, but because city schools, under the present system of arrangements, are veritable hotbeds of lung epidemics, elaborately and ingeniously contrived hatcheries for the development of pulmonary disorders. The supply of artificial heat is generally in excess of actual needs, while the facilities for ventilation are not one tenth of what they might be and should be. In a temperature of 80° to 85° Fahrenheit scores of children are penned up for hours together, vitiating the air with their exhalations and the effluvia of their damp clothing, and thus providing the conditions most favorable to the development of disease germs—a combination of oppressive heat with a damp and stagnant atmosphere.

"Take a pound of clover-seed," says a recipe of the Buckland lectures, "soak it in a gallon of rain-water kept at a temperature of 95°, and vast multitudes of infusoria will develop in a period varying from ten to fifteen hours. But add one drop of a liquid already saturated with animalcula, and the process of development will be accelerated in a portentous and incredible manner: in less than half an hour millions of wriggling specks will be seen where only a dozen or two could be seen before."

With equal certainty we might guarantee the evolution of lung diseases wherever half a hundred human beings are confined in a damp, ill-ventilated, and overheated room. But introduce one person already afflicted with a well-developed catarrh and the danger of infecting all the rest will be increased a hundred-fold; the microscopes of the future will reveal the result in an atmosphere filled with microbes as a grist-mill with flour-dust, and we might as well inoculate our children with influenza virus as to force them to inhale at every breath a myriad of lung parasites eager to fasten upon a sore spot of the pulmonary tissue. It is true that absolutely sound lungs are for a while microbe-proof, but the period of that immunity is limited, as proved by the fate of woodland apes confined in the stuffy atmosphere of an overheated menagerie. And how many city children are wholly free from inherited or acquired lung disorders? Perhaps five per cent, but more probably hardly five in a thousand. All the rest are more or less directly injured by a dose of microbe air, and in our North American schools, with rare exceptions, that poison is administered six hours a day, for about a hundred days in the year—the martyrdom of swelter heat and closed windows being often kept up long after the end of March.

The street-cars of several New England cities take in more fares during the three winter months than all the rest of the year taken together. Some of their patrons take a ride only in cold weather; their hearts, like persimmons, get softened by frost. They will walk five miles in midsummer to save five cents, and defy spring showers in waterproofs, but the dread of "colds," alias catarrhs, persuades them to enter a crowded catarrh-trap. The females of their species often devote the whole winter to indoor indolence, with such intermezzos as a visit to the next-door neighbors or a walk to the track of the nearest motor line.

And yet they enjoy better appetites in winter than in midsummer—the season of outings and vacation tours, of boat-races

and berry excursions. Every boarding-house keeper knows that in warm weather six out of ten guests merely nibble their food, but try to eat a Christmas dinner every winter day—and that in spite of the fact that many of them pass twenty-three hours of those winter days in an atmosphere of artificial summer.

The explanation can be found in the redeeming influence of the twenty-fourth hour—the six times ten minutes passed on street-corners, in markets, post-office vestibules, and wood-yards. A few lungs-full of intensely cold fresh air atone for a multitude of hygienic sins, and, unlike the nostrums of medical confidence men, the remedy answers its purpose with or without the confidence of the patient.

THE BUSINESS LETTER.

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER.

A YOUNG man who saw in himself unmistakable indications of genius once submitted an eloquent oration to his professor for criticism, with secret anticipations of admiring commendation. "What do you mean by that?" asked the grim censor, reading one of the most glowing passages. The abashed author proceeded to put the not very obvious meaning into a few plain words. "Then," said the professor, "why not say so?" and drew the merciless pencil through all but the bare statement. Sentence after sentence shared the same fate, the admission, "I meant so-and-so" being always followed by the question, "Then why not say so?"

As a formula for literary composition this can hardly be of universal application, the charm of a great deal of delightful writing being mainly in the author's manner of "saying so," and the enticing fashion in which he leads us on, through little meandering by-paths, to a destination where we should not have cared to arrive by the straight road of the familiar highway. But for the business letter no better council can be given. Be sure you understand what you wish to ask or to tell and then "say so." A vague, wandering, confused business letter is an annoyance no one has a right to inflict upon others. Personal matters and asides that might be of interest to your friends are wholly out of place, as well as apologies and elaborate explanations. If you have not promptly attended to a business letter you are inexcusable, and no apology can in the least improve the situation, unless it were in the nature of the following response to an invitation: "Mr. McGonigle begs to be excused from dining with Lady Mary to-day, as he was hanged at Old Bailey yesterday," an instance where neglect on the part of the guest seems to have been atoned for by the courtesy of his ghost.

A matter may require deliberation or consultation, but in this case a brief note should at once be sent in acknowledgment, to be followed at the earliest possible day by a suitable letter, recalling the date and subject of the correspondence, and answering any questions in simple, direct fashion. The various aspects of the case, the difficulty you may have experienced in coming to a decision, the peculiar embarrassments of your situation, are of no importance to your correspondent, who wishes to know only your conclusion. It must be confessed that women are special offenders in this respect, but mainly through lack of training. The great majority of womankind, having been educated to think that business affairs pertain wholly to the domain of man, never trouble themselves about details until they find them thrust into their unaccustomed hands, and are bewildered and perplexed by what seems to a man wholly unimportant. The education of women's clubs, and the multiplicity of benevolent and social organizations managed by women, are in a measure supplying the lack, but they are also making evident the need of funda-

mental instruction to the young girl in business ways and methods, that she may not need to learn them later in life, to the annoyance of her associates.

Thin paper, fanciful penmanship, flourishes of all kinds, abbreviations, and pet names have no place in a business correspondence. You may be Kittie or Maggie to your friends and intimates, but in a business letter take to yourself the dignity of Katherine or Margaret. Why a woman who has passed babyhood should ever wish to curtail these queenly names is not easy to understand, but at least she may confine them to the household, and not send them into the market-place. Rev. Tommy Smith and Dr. Jimmy Brown would be greeted with derision; why are Birdie May Jones, attorney-at-law, and Dr. Hattie Belle Brown any less ridiculous?—yet both these names figure among recent graduates of professional schools.

Whatever your signature may be, it must be legible, not only to yourself and friends but to strangers with no clue to your identity. Any other word may be guessed at by its connection, but persons with wide business correspondence are often driven to imitate as nearly as possible the signature of a document, with no idea whether a letter is *n* or *u*, *a* or *o*, *y* or *g*, *e* or *c*. If the street and number are added to the address this does not matter so much, and every business letter should have these particulars, as well as exact date. The first thing one wishes to know is *when* it was written.

Whether you shall address your correspondent as

"Mr. John Brown,
"Secretary Library Association;
"Dear Sir,"

or "My dear Mr. Brown," or "Dear Mr. Brown," depends wholly upon the degree of formality desirable, the first being of course the most ceremonious, the last the least so.

It ought not to be necessary to remind any person of ordinary intelligence to enclose stamps in letters pertaining to her own business. But women have curious ideas of courtesy in such matters; they will insist upon paying car-fare for their friends (though a man never does it), and yet feel that to enclose a two-cent stamp to a person with whom they have no acquaintance is assuming a degree of littleness on her part that is uncomplimentary. If men are more careful it is simply that they put the stamp inside of the letter, as they do on the outside, to insure attention, having learned by experience that a man must expect justice and not generosity in business.

No business documents carry such a freight of hopes and fears as those that escort on their "little journeys in the world" the precious creations of fancy and imagination that are too often doomed to find no rest on all the waste of waters, but come back soiled and rumpled to the hand that sent them forth. Good advice to young writers appears perennially, but the race is perennial also, and kindly counsel is in no danger of being superfluous. The matter and manner of your contribution to literature are hardly within the scope of this article, but having something to say, having done your best to say it effectively, having reconsidered, revised, rewritten, until you have attained such perfection as may be possible to you, leave it to its own merits and the editor's judgment, with the briefest possible introduction. Theoretically, at least, nothing matters to that autocratic individual but the quality of your work and its adaptation to his special needs.

That you are suddenly compelled to earn your livelihood, that you have been urged by admiring friends to send something for publication, that you have always been fond of literature and that it has been your great ambition to become an author, are facts of no possible interest to the editor, and your statement of them is a heavy presumption against the value of your contribution, since it stamps you at once as a tyro, on whose experiments few editors can afford to waste time.

Write upon your manuscript your full name and address, and put it, with little folding, in a substantial envelope. Say to the editor: "The enclosed manuscript, entitled ——— ———, is offered for publication in your magazine. If not available kindly

return to the following address." This is brief, courteous, and clear. The title of your article is necessary in case letter and manuscript are accidentally separated, and the address should be repeated on the manuscript for the same reason. The enclosure of stamps enough to cover return postage is all that can be added to give any value to your letter, and if your article comes back you have only to repeat your experiment somewhere else. I think it is the Autocrat of the Breakfast Table who once remarked that if you arranged a load of potatoes ever so carefully the jolting of the market wagon was sure to carry the small ones to the bottom; but even small potatoes have their uses, and if of the right quality are quite sure to find a market.

TRADE AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

BY FLORENCE KELLEY.

OF HULL-HOUSE, CHICAGO.

THE girls who stay in the public schools of Chicago until they are fourteen years of age are well started in the direction of trade and commerce. The only acquirements offered them in which thoroughness enough is attained to confer value for the labor market tend toward the office or the store. The peasant children in the sweat-shops, cigar factories, and candy cellars have dropped out of school at the third, fourth, or, at best, fifth grade. The seventh-grade girls have been, for two years at the end of their course, gaining the commercial arithmetic, clear writing, and somewhat accurate spelling calculated to equip them for employment as time-keepers in the present, and pave the way toward the typewriting and bookkeeping of the future. The connection is very close between the 2,695 little girls in the factories and workshops of Chicago and the stupid curriculum of the secondary grades, and closer still between the curriculum and the 2,000 little girls engaged in commerce. The choice lies virtually between these two openings, on the one hand, and the teaching trade, conceived not at all as a profession, on the other.

It would, perhaps, be not wholly unjust to represent the process as follows: Leave school at or below third grade, enter sweat-shops; leave school at third, fourth, or fifth grade, enter sweat-shops, laundries, stores; leave school at sixth, seventh, or eighth grade, preparing to be typewriters or teachers.

The grade-schools of Chicago teach the girls virtually nothing which leads in any other directions than these. There is not only no suggestion of any household art or craft or science; there is actual diversion of the attention of the girls from these subjects to others, foreign if not antagonistic to them, and the upper schools do not differ from the lower ones in this respect.

In the nineteenth ward of Chicago, the poorest working-class district in the city, the girls in the seventh grade of the public schools spent, last winter, more time upon commercial arithmetic than upon any other two studies. Their work would have been valuable, perhaps, for bank clerks actually engaged in the business and fitting themselves for positions as cashiers of large institutions. It was strictly technical work, the only technical education offered these daughters of Italian, Polish, Russian, and Bohemian peasant immigrants. Yet, with all this outlay of time, there was not a girl in the class who could have calculated, at the end of the year's work, what per cent of her father's earnings had been spent for fuel, light, food, clothing, and car-fare, respectively, though this is the problem in regard to her own or her husband's wages which will have to be solved in practice every day by every one of these children after they leave school.

Not only is the connection close between

this ill-advised curriculum and the flocking of young girls into commerce and retail trade; it is even closer between the sins of omission of the grade-schools and the bad teeth, nervous exhaustion, and intemperance of our young boys and girls. For girls who learn nothing about food in school, who have no opportunity at home to supplement their school work, and who enter the labor market in their early teens, it is inevitable that their children will be fed beer, coffee, cucumbers, and bananas while cutting their first teeth, as we see working-class children fed to-day, while the older ones are literally driven to drink by the indigestion and starvation which accompany bakers' alum bread, soggy potatoes, and shoe-sole steak fried thin.

It is now eighteen years since the writer watched a class of eleven-year-old girls in a board school in the East End of London cook a substantial meal in their cooking center and carry home the articles which they had cooked, paying enough in pence and half-pence to cover the cost of the materials used. There are to-day two cooking centers in Chicago public schools, but they are carried on by private philanthropy, and there is no serious intention manifest on the part of the board of education of introducing into the schools generally even this most vitally needed branch of education. Yet it is difficult to see why cooking is not far more essential than the knack of calculating bank deposits and the interest thereon, for the hundreds of peasants' daughters who will never be bank clerks or speculators, but will certainly have to cook meals for their husbands and children. As a means of culture *per se*, the calculations of commercial arithmetic cannot be regarded; their only excuse for being in a grade-school curriculum is the crassly utilitarian one that some of the boys in the grade are getting ready to be bookkeepers. Then why not differentiate the work and give some of the time so spent to preparation of the girls for work which certainly awaits them?

The sewing introduced several years ago into the schools, without any preparation of the teachers for giving instruction in it, seems to have fallen asleep permanently, and there is no perceptible, serious effort to revive it.

The subjects which normally occupy happy women almost to the point of monopolizing their attention are food, clothing, shelter, and the care and nurture of children. But the curriculum of our grade-schools excludes these subjects and substitutes for them the study of words and numbers as adapted to use in retail stores.

The traveler from Mars could scarcely escape the inference, if he knew our life only through our schools, that this is the last generation of our race; for there is no preparation in them for the life of the race in the future. Cooking, sewing, designing garments, furniture, or houses, hygiene in practical relation to food, clothing, ventilation, or the care and cleanliness and rest of little children—is there any grade-school which deals effectively with any of these matters, without which the race could not complete the first quarter of the incoming century?

Hygiene, it is true, is taught out of a book, to the relatively small number of children who persist unto the second half-year of the seventh grade; but this is a small minority of the children and the teaching is far from vital or immediately valuable.

Little girls in the primary grades could perfectly well be interested in their clothing —in the questions why dark clothing is more serviceable than white; why woolens are more wholesome for people who are doing hard bodily work than cottons; why cleanliness is needful for the health of the skin, especially in the case of babies and little children. In the fifth grade the children are already old enough to understand and take a keen interest in the simple principles of laundry work or even of dyeing; and their arithmetic might well concern itself with the cost of foods, the length of time that a garment may be expected to wear as a factor in determining the relative prices of goods, the cost of daily chewing gum and cigarettes compared with the cost

of books bought at regular intervals, or of annual trips to suburbs and parks.

There is the more reason for adjusting the teaching in the fourth and fifth grades to the immediate ignorance of the children, because sixty-eight per cent of them go no farther than the fifth grade, as the superintendent of schools, Mr. Albert Lane, points out year after year in his reports. But we have no teachers and no plant for any such technical work as the children would be adequate to. Our schools are not only not equipped to enrich and beautify the day, as it passes, for the children; they are not even preparing them for the inevitable experiences of the next following years.

The fact that the technical subjects referred to as suitable for young girls are to-day repulsive rather than attractive to them is a severe indictment of the work done in the schools; for, rightly taught, these subjects are more absorbingly interesting than any others to young girls.

Never before was so much money available for purposes of public education. Never was the public interest so deep and widespread, and never was the lamentable failure of the schools to give the girls those aptitudes which they urgently need so flagrant, as in the great foreign colonies in the manufacturing and commercial centers, where little girls are directly stimulated by their school work to enter lines of occupation from which men are most ruinously crowded out, while negatively the children are discouraged by their lack of training from entering fields of activity in which trained ability is more conspicuously lacking in America to-day than in any other civilized country.

It seems hardly credible that all this is accidental; it almost seems as though there must be an intention, on the part of the business men to whom the schools are entrusted, to stock the market permanently with cheap heads for commercial purposes, as it is stocked to-day with cheap hands for the lower forms of unskilled labor—so far is the curriculum from assuring to the children any real efficiency of hands or minds.

All the opportunities for manual training and technical education which are really comprehensive enough to be of value are offered to older students. The Armour schools presuppose, as do the business colleges, the kindergarten training schools, and schools for nurses, the completion of the secondary education before the pupil enters the course of technical work. Yet whatever technical education is to be secured to the mass of working-class children must be provided for the years from ten to sixteen. In these years all those things which are fundamentally necessary to train girls to be intelligent as mothers and housekeepers can be made pedagogically valuable when the conscience of the teaching sisterhood is awakened to the present sins of omission. To do this we need practical women on school boards and teachers in our grade-schools who are intelligent, well-bred, and well-trained to a degree far beyond our present standards.

TEARS.

BY F. E. MEDICUS.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

"UNCLE, you are terrible. Of course you don't know how much good a shower of tears can do."

"A shower of tears? No, absolutely not. I haven't even preserved a recollection of it from my childhood. The only thing I know from that golden age is that tears taste salty. Salt water—nothing but salt water; isn't that so, doctor?"

"And one tenth of one per cent albumen and other trifles."

"There, Elsie, you see all there is in your magic tears."

"No, brother, you are really too material-

istic," now put in the worthy Miss Eulalie, a little vexed. "The ability to weep is the exclusive privilege of man, and I believe the kind Creator would not have bestowed it upon the crown of creation if he had not——"

"I beg your pardon, young lady, Providence has also bestowed it upon my blooded mare. Not long ago when she had caught cold——"

"That is not weeping though. Animals never weep."

"What, animals never weep? Oh!"

"Animals never weep—the young lady is right; for the occasional gushing out of a few tears from the irritation of the eye can hardly be called weeping. Darwin certainly believed that elephants and a few kinds of apes are an exception; but this appears not to be verified. Besides, little children do not weep either—I mean very little children. Until the age of about one hundred days they do not really shed a tear—not even when they are screaming as if they were being cut in pieces."

"Then they ought not to get accustomed to it later."

"They would probably die, or at least become extremely nervous," quietly observed the judge.

"Gracious! the affair is getting serious. Well, doctor, just tell us; you are a specialist in such matters, you know. How is it about weeping? What does it come from? What good is it?"

"I am sorry I cannot give a satisfactory answer. In the medical lectures we don't learn that sort of thing. When a child weeps, of course it is healthy for it, and so it does not concern the doctor. Yet I happen to be somewhat informed on Darwin's idea of the matter. He has written a peculiar book about the expression of the emotions—nice and easy to read. There are pictures in it too, to illustrate his idea."

"Go on, we are very curious to hear."

"I am sorry to disappoint you. His explanation of weeping probably does not belong to the strongest things that Darwin has produced. He tries to explain it thus: If a child feels pain, say hunger or the effect of a carelessly placed pin, it cries out, naturally; or, if we are not satisfied with this 'naturally,' it cries either because every external exertion turns away the attention from the feeling of pain, and therefore is a relief, or because the habit of calling for help in distress is so firmly rooted in preceding generations that even the unconscious child brings the impulse of it along into the world. Continuous screaming, however, unavoidably causes an overfilling of the blood-vessels of the eye; at the same time the muscles which surround the eye are involuntarily contracted, as may be seen externally by the wrinkles in the face.

"Through this double pressure the tear-glands are so irritated that they secrete tears more abundantly than usual. More abundantly than usual, I say, for a gentle cascade of tears trickles continually over the eyeballs in order to facilitate the movement of the eyelids and at the same time to remove penetrating dust. This liquid under ordinary circumstances does not get beyond the lower edge of the eye, as it is dammed back by a little fatty pillow, but it trickles continually through little channels which lead from the lower corner of the eye to the nose. But if in consequence of the before-mentioned irritation of the tear-glands an unusual flow takes place, then the little channels are no longer able to contain the quantity, the little dams overflow, a thick tear tumbles over the protecting edge, and then—well, ladies and gentlemen, you know what happens."

"Splendid! But you said before, doctor, that animals never weep. Are not their muscles contracted, or haven't they any muscles at all around their eyes?"

"My good woman, you have touched the weak point of Darwin's theory. But I know of none better; perhaps our psychologist knows."

"Of course, just because I am a psychologist, and not a materialistic doctor!" said the judge, defending himself against the gentle ridicule.

"Well, go on then," commanded Uncle Augustus, "but don't talk too learnedly: give us your names. I like the concrete.

The doctor mentioned Darwin. I know about him: he was the man with the apes. Well, what have you to say?"

"I have nothing to say, really, in explanation of weeping, but only of its right place in the order of psycho-physical procedures."

"Ahem!" said the doctor, clearing his throat.

The judge went calmly on.

"The most usual and certain cause of tears is intellectual pain—sorrowful ideas accompanied by gloomy feelings. Bodily pain makes us weep only when it is excessive and shakes the whole nervous system in such a way that the tear-glands are reflexively stimulated. But the tears that accompany bodily pain might also be understood as a consequence of emotions that take place at the same time, such as anxiety, fear, etc. Accordingly we must take as our point of departure excitement of the feelings. All the stronger excitements of the soul are accompanied by movements of the body, to which psychology gives the name 'movements of expression.' Now it is a fact known to all that purely intellectual impressions are often so similar to those called forth by bodily sensations as to be confused with them. So, for example, the feeling which we have under the weight of heavy, depressing circumstances is approximately similar to that called forth by a material burden, really heavy in a literal sense. Under certain circumstances, also, we react physically upon our intellectual impressions exactly in the same manner as upon irritations which touch our bodies from without; in other words, emotions of the soul are easily accompanied by the same involuntary movements as would follow if an external irritation aroused a similar feeling."

"Very plausible; but why do we have tears?"

"The doctor has already mentioned that the tears which in a small quantity trickle continually over the eye increase when it is necessary to remove from the eye a little insect or small body that has forced its way in. Tears are therefore called forth reflexively through an irritation that is painful to the eye. Now, unquestionably, the sight of an event that causes us purely physical pain is accompanied by a feeling very similar to the one which arises when a material disturbance gets into the eye. It is therefore only an application of what has been previously said when I observe that a sight painful to the soul has the same effect upon the nerve leading to the tear-gland as an external irritation which produces the same feeling."

"The theory has perhaps something in its favor," observed the doctor slowly.

"Let me add one thing more. The other expressive movements that accompany weeping bear the same character of original reaction against the impressions on the organs of sense. The mouth is stretched as it is from the irritation of bitter taste, the eyelids are sunken as if they wished to ward off an irritating light, and under the influence of oppressive feelings expulsions of breath follow from time to time, called sobs. This, too, is a peculiarity of man."

"Do stop!" exclaimed Uncle Augustus, "or from your vivid description we shall really begin to weep."

"And yet, judge, in this roundabout way you can hardly come to an explanation of weeping in little children. An infant a half-year old has neither ideas, nor thoughts, nor ——"

"No, but if in many generations tears are produced in this way, then the psycho-physical connection between pain and weeping finally becomes so fixed that the disposition to it is born in every new inhabitant of the earth."

"That is correct," asserted the doctor. "But how do you explain the fact that little children do not weep until they are three months old?"

"I cannot explain it. I believe the explanation belongs more to your domain than to mine, for I presume that the development of tear-glands is so slow that in the first months of life no extraordinary secretion of tears is possible. Yet, as I said, I only presume so. I am not a physiologist."

"And yet your supposition might be right," said the doctor. "Your theory has at least this in its favor, that it offers a

reason for the difference in regard to weeping which exists between man and beast; for if weeping is explained by ideas and the movements of the feelings connected therewith, then no wonder that the brutes, whose inner life has not in the remotest degree the depth and clearness of the intellectual life of man, never weep."

"Why, the thing is really interesting! But go on to the end," spoke up Uncle Augustus. "What is that you were saying about the good done by a shower of tears? Can you justify that too by science?"

"All expressive movements serve in a certain degree for the liberation of a psychic tension. You know, uncle, when you are sometimes so very angry——"

"I am never angry."

"And you strike with all your might on the table——"

"You are right, that does me good."

"It is unquestionably better for your nerves——"

"I haven't any nerves."

"Than if you had to swallow your wrath in silence; and it is also psycho-physiologically explainable that in this you are just as correct as we in our assertion about weeping. Tears are a liberation for depressed feeling. Every intense excitement of feeling has connected with it an intense movement of the nerves."

"Well, well!" said Uncle Augustus.

"With the less violent but still strong excitements, the activity which the nerves find through their expressive movements as well as through the irritation of the tear-glands is a wholesome liberation; and, still farther, the process of weeping itself, which is again accompanied by particular feelings, as every bodily proceeding is, may react upon the movement of the feelings, calling forth thought, soothing associations, etc. The nervous system and the feelings find their equilibrium again in weeping to the heart's content."

"Well, great heav— I beg your pardon; I mean I am not inhuman either. Cry, then, as much as you wish. May it do you good!"

THE SUMMIT.

BY EMMA E. VOLENTINE.

HAS one, then, reached the summit of the hill,
When life has been half told? Do there remain
No farther heights to seek, no crest to gain,
While, journeying, upward we are looking still?
Shall never more be felt ambition's thrill,
Nor voice of earthly hope be heard again?
When feet have learned to walk, and bear the pain,
Must they no more in climbing show their skill?
It is not so! There is no other side
The hill of life; there is no downward slope
That reaches to the grave. The whole long way
Goes up and on, and, let what may betide,
The heart unto the end is cheered by hope—
The end, at which begins consummate day.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

GREATER NEW YORK'S FIRST MAYOR ELECTED.

AN element of tragedy was introduced into the New York mayoralty campaign by the death four days before election of Henry George,† the candidate of the Jeffersonian Democracy. Although Henry George, Jr., was immediately substituted for his father as the candidate of the party, the ranks broken by the death of the leader could not be rallied and their demoralization materially influenced the outcome of the contest. The election November 2 resulted in the complete triumph of the regular or Tammany Democracy, with a plurality for Van Wyck as mayor of 80,103. The entire vote for the four prominent candidates was about as follows: Van Wyck, Tammany, 228,688; Low, Citizens' Union, 148,585; Tracy, Republican, 101,571; George, Jeffersonian Democracy, 19,864.

ROBERT A. VAN WYCK.
Greater New York's First Mayor.

(Tracy Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The triumph of Tammany on Tuesday was the consequence of the folly of the conservative forces which last year carried the Greater New York by a majority of about 60,000. When obviously the only way of beating the hordes of Bryanism was to keep together the social and political elements which last year stood solidly for Mr. McKinley, they split apart under the impulse of a hysterical mania for an intellectual bauble.

(Low Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Above the cruel wreck of the Republican machine by its own chief engineer, one fact stands triumphant. It is that the people have discarded the doctrine, new and strange to Republican polity, that national and state affairs have anything to do with a municipal election.

(Low Ind.) The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

The one ray of light in the situation is the Low vote of 150,000. This is a magnificent beginning for a wholly new system of nominating and canvassing, considering the obstacles of every kind against which the movement had to contend.

(Tammany Dem.) The Journal. (New York, N. Y.)

The people have voted for Democracy, but not for "Crokerism." They have voted against sham reform, but not against true reform. They are as anxious for good government, with all that implies, as the most superior member of the Citizens' Union.

(Low Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

These machine conspirators, proclaiming themselves the special champions and defenders of sound money, carried on a desperate and successful battle to prevent that victory and put in power the free silverites, whom they pretended to fear. And now to avoid the responsibility for that crime against New York they sneak off whining that they are the victims of their deep devotion to sound money and McKinley.

(Ind.) The Washington Post. (D. C.)

It remains to be seen whether Tammany will answer the popular expectation—abolish the *régime* of the busybodies and restore the dispensation of self-respect and freedom. We believe it will. Fanaticism has had its day, and the sun of liberty is rising. New York has had enough of humbug. Tammany will be wise to consider New York's dignity and happiness.

(Dem.) The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

For four years to come Democrats will control the metropolis of America. It means majority rule. It means an end to sham reform, a beginning of real reform in the interests of the people.

(Rep.) The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Any fool might have known that hope of victory against Tammany lay in a unity of purpose, and that the campaign must center upon the Republican organization. But Mr. Low's friends intended to rule or ruin—and they have ruined.

Pall Mall Gazette. (London, England)

Such an organization as Tammany could not

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* This department, together with the book "The Social Spirit in America," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

† See page 322 of this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

exist in London. A man or an organization once proved guilty of corruption could never return to power. Tammany, under the leadership of Croker, has done so in a manner which must afford food for serious thought, even in a city so accustomed to bad government as New York.

Tageblatt. (Berlin, Germany.)

The victory in Greater New York will have a sinister effect throughout the nation, for it means that the awakening desire for municipal reform has received a terrific set-back.

Journal des Debats. (Paris, France.)

Once again is displayed the incapacity of honest citizens of New York to organize and shake off the dominion of the political intriguers who exploit and dishonor municipal politics.

CHARLES A. DANA.*

THE death of Charles Anderson Dana, editor of the New York *Sun*, which occurred at his home near Glencove, L. I., October 17, has removed one of the foremost figures of American journalism. Charles A. Dana was born in Hinsdale, N. H., August 8, 1819. He early determined to have a good education, and while working as a clerk in a store in Buffalo fitted himself for college. He entered Harvard University without a condition in 1839 and remained there two years, obtaining the necessary funds by teaching in summer and borrowing money secured by an insurance on his life. Obliged by weak eyes to leave college at the end of his sophomore year, he joined the Brook Farm community at Roxbury, Mass., and here did his first newspaper work as a writer for *The Harbinger*, the organ of the society. Dana's next step was to become assistant editor of the Boston *Chronotype*. He continued this work until 1847, when he obtained employment under Horace Greeley as city editor of the *New York Tribune*. Two years later he became managing editor of the *Tribune*, and held this position for ten years. Early in the war Mr. Dana was made assistant secretary of war by President Lincoln and in this capacity was sent to the front, where he rendered the government valuable service in reporting upon the condition of affairs at important points. His ability to read character stood him in good stead in this work. In 1865 he went back to journalism as editor of *The Chicago Republican*, but this paper soon became involved in financial difficulties and Mr. Dana returned to New York and organized a company for the purchase of the New York *Sun*. He took possession of *The Sun* in 1868 and continued its editor until his death. As editor of this paper he for many years supported the Democratic party, but in the presidential campaign of 1884 advocated the election of General Butler and in 1896 declared for the Republican candidate. His son, Paul Dana, has for a number of years been associated with him in his editorial work.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The world of newspapers loses a man who had a distinct and an elevated conception of their legitimate function in modern civilization, which he fulfilled with patience, diligence, originality, and an exhaustive knowledge of detail. The world of letters loses a choice critic, an erudite scholar, and a master of English style. The world of politics loses a fighter equipped with economic learning and the practical experience gained by intimate contact with the greatest figures of an active generation.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

It must always be a matter of profound regret to the admirers of this exceptionally gifted man that he was so much the prey of his own intense and ineradicable prejudices. That he had a clear and lucid mind his writings show. His weakness lay in his disability to rid himself of the handicap of his own violent and unreasonable likes and dislikes.

Cincinnati Commercial Gazette. (O.)

The three traits of character which especially distinguished the dead editor were his optimistic spirit, his uncompromising hatred of and hostility to all deceit, dishonesty, and sophistry, and his love of country.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

A man of keen intelligence, broad information, a wide acquaintance with public men, having fixed political principles and the ability to give clear and forcible expression to his views, he was an exceptionably able editorial writer.

The Washington Post. (D. C.)

Whatever Mr. Dana thought he uttered with surpassing eloquence and clearness. Right or wrong, mistaken or informed, just or unjust, generous or vengeful, philanthropic or malevolent, he was at all times frank, outspoken, and commanding. No one can say of him that he was faint-hearted in his animosities or a laggard in his loves. Whatever else he may have been, he was not that poor and unconsidered thing, a negative.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The last survivor of a school of journalists that produced many notable men, he was in some respects the ablest of them all, as he certainly was the most erudite and cosmopolitan. His death is as great a loss to American journalism as the death of Lowell was to American literature.

* For portrait of Mr. Dana see frontispiece of this number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

A RECIPROCITY COMMISSION APPOINTED.

JOHN A. KASSON.
The New Reciprocity Commissioner.

IN order that the clauses of the Dingley Tariff Act relating to reciprocity may be carried out, President McKinley, on October 14, designated John A. Kasson of Iowa a special commissioner with plenary powers to put their provisions into effect. The commissioner is charged particularly to look after the agricultural interests of both North and South and not to forget the manufacturing interests east of the Alleghanies. Mr. Kasson brings to the new position considerable experience in diplomatic negotiations. He was minister to Austria from 1877 to 1881 and minister to Germany from July 4, 1884, to March, 1885. While at the Austrian capital he acted as the representative of Nicaragua in a dispute between that country and Great Britain, of which the emperor of Austria was arbitrator, and when stationed at Berlin served as American delegate to the Congo Conference. In 1889 he was again sent to Berlin, this time as special envoy extraordinary and minister plenipotentiary representing the United States at the conference concerning Samoan affairs. Preceding his diplomatic service, Mr. Kasson was for many years a member of the Ways and Means Committee of the House of Representatives and thus became familiar with the different aspects of the tariff question. He has chosen as his secretary Mr. Chapman Coleman of Kentucky, who was for a number of years secretary of the United States embassy at Berlin. Mr. John Ball Osborne of Pennsylvania will act as assistant secretary. The commission has been assigned suitable quarters in the Department of State in Washington. France is the first country to invite a conference, and Mr. Patenotre, the French ambassador to the United States, is already negotiating for a treaty of reciprocity between the two countries.

The Milwaukee Sentinel. (Wis.)

The president has acted wisely in making special provision for the more prompt execution of the Republican reciprocity policy and he has shown excellent judgment in his selection of the men to whom this work is entrusted.

The Ledger. (Tacoma, Wash.)

That those sections of the law are to be given early attention by a commission headed by a gentleman so eminently fitted for the position as is Mr. Kasson gives promise of beneficial results for the industries of this country.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The gentleman [Mr. Kasson] is an old-fashioned high tariff advocate, the failure of the practical plans of which class of protectionists was recognized by the whole Republican party when the late Mr. Blaine proclaimed the policy of reciprocity. The president and Mr. Kasson are of the same school, and it will be instructive to watch their progress with the application of the theories of Mr. Blaine.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The French government is desirous of reciprocal trade relations with the United States. Other countries are eager for similar arrangements, and the amount of labor which the various negotiations will require abundantly justifies the president's action in appointing a special commissioner to direct the work.

THE YELLOW FEVER PLAGUE.

THROUGH the month of October the yellow fever epidemic gave little sign of abatement. It gradually spread east as far as Montgomery, Ala., west as far as Houston, Tex., and north as far as Memphis, Tenn. It also took on a somewhat malignant form in the island of Jamaica. In the United States both the number of cases and the rate of mortality have been exceptionally low. Up to November 5 New Orleans, the center of the plague, had had 223 deaths, while in 1867 they numbered 1,072 for the month of October alone. The appearance of frost early in November raised hopes that the disease would soon be checked and the quarantine regulations were in many places entirely or partially suspended. The injury done to trade and travel by the strict rules enforced has caused considerable discussion of the desirability of national quarantine regulations.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

Of all the efforts which have been made to discount the value of life in the Southern States, the most senseless has been the wild and indiscriminate quarantines which have been declared in various parts of the country.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

Whether or not the sanitary condition of southern cities is responsible for the outbreak of yellow fever, it is a deplorable fact that the South has been debarred in large measure from participation in the prosperity which has overspread the rest of the country. Trade cannot flourish under the shadow of a deadly epidemic. The afflicted section should have the generous sympathy of more fortunate communities.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

That a well-organized and liberally equipped federal service would close most of the gaps through which the epidemics of the past have found an entrance to our ports will not be disputed.

New Orleans Picayune. (La.)

The greed and covetousness of human nature and the keen competitions of business at the different ports operate against the completeness and thoroughness of the measures taken for the general safety.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The need of uniformity in quarantine regulations is imperative. The old, conflicting state systems are grossly inadequate to prevent the advance of epidemic disease, and besides that they often actually expose whole neighborhoods to the danger of infection.

Florida Times-Union and Citizen. (Jacksonville.)

No man sitting at Washington, no matter how able an administrator, can protect the health of these states so well as they can protect it themselves, if they will only follow the example of Florida and put in the hands of the right men the power they need—the power without which the national quarantine board would itself be useless.

The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

As to the power of the general government to protect the country from invasion by disease, that rests on the same broad ground that does the power to repel a foreign navy or army from ravaging the coasts and carrying fire and sword into the interior. It is mere childish political sentimentality that quarrels with these propositions. They are founded in both reason and law, and buttressed by common sense.

THE STATE ELECTIONS.

NOTWITHSTANDING this was what is known in politics as an "off year," the contests which terminated in the election of November 2 were in many states sharp, and their results of national importance. This was especially the case in Ohio and Maryland, where legislatures were to be chosen that will elect United States senators. Ohio was also to make choice of a governor. The vote in that state resulted in the reelection of the Republican governor, Asa S. Bushnell, and a Republican assembly, but reduced the Republican majority in the assembly from eighty-five to about five. Maryland also returned a Republican assembly with a diminished majority. The election of Republican assemblies in both these states makes sure the choice of Republican United States senators to succeed Senators Hanna (Rep.) and Gorman (Dem.), whose terms expire in 1899. Kentucky went back to Democratic rule by a plurality of about 25,000. The Silver Democrats will control the legislature with about twenty majority. In the state of New York, as in the city, the Tammany Democracy profited by the division in the Republican party. Alton B. Parker, the Democratic candidate for chief judge of the court of appeals, was elected by a plurality of about 50,000. The Republicans retain control of the assembly by a bare majority. Pennsylvania went Republican as usual, the Republican candidates for state treasurer and auditor-general having about 120,000 plurality. New Jersey still retains a Republican majority in the legislature. Massachusetts elected the Republican state ticket with Roger Wolcott as governor by about 85,000 plurality. Virginia elected an almost straight Democratic ticket. The fusion ticket carried Nebraska. In Iowa the Republicans elected a governor, but lost ground in both houses of the legislature. The Republicans claim six of the eight circuit court judges elected in South Dakota.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

A political reaction on the year following the inauguration of a new national administration is usual. Enough happened Tuesday to show the Republicans that they will have to struggle hard in 1898 to retain possession of the House of Representatives.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The main fact is that, except in the few states which have United States senators to elect soon, the voting this year did nothing to shape the next Congress. Congressmen will not be elected until next year, and then national issues will indeed test the opinion of voters. It is safe to say that, with continuing prosperity, Republican principles will again command majorities in many congressional districts in which on altogether different questions the majority this year has been adverse.

(Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Everywhere throughout the country the weakest places in the Republican line were those where bossism has ruled most arrogantly. Elsewhere the

party did surprisingly well for an off year. Wherever the personal element was eliminated the Republicans held their own. This was notably true in Massachusetts and in Iowa. Everywhere the McKinley administration was an element of strength.

(Rep.) Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

Ohio has not done her duty toward the national administration, but there is nothing for the Republicans to do but to pick their flints and try again.

(Dem.) The Enquirer. (Cincinnati, O.)

Forty thousand more votes were cast [in Ohio] for Democratic candidates for the legislature than for Republican candidates for the same offices. This is a direct test of the strength of the Democracy in the face of the opposition of the entire national administration, with its power through patronage and official influence and the aggregated wealth and interests which supported Mr. Hanna. These results may be claimed by Mr. Hanna and his friends as a victory, but another such victory would be worse than two defeats.

(Ind.) Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The Democrats won, hands down, in Virginia, a fact which will cause conflicting emotions among the Republicans of that state. One Republican faction, it will be recalled, insisted that a state ticket ought to be nominated to keep the party together, and the other declared it foolish to fight the dominant organization in an off year. Now that the Republican candidate for governor has polled a small vote, the do-nothing faction is sure to regard itself as justified, while the members of the party who believed that an aggressive campaign ought to be made will be bitter against those who refused to cast their ballots. Thus a breach has been made that will take long in healing.

ASSOCIATE JUSTICE STEPHEN J. FIELD RETIRES.

JUSTICE STEPHEN J. FIELD.

On December 1 the Supreme Court of the United States will lose its oldest member in the person of Associate Justice Stephen J. Field, whose resignation was made public October 14. Justice Field in the announcement of his resignation to his associates of the Supreme Court presents an interesting sketch of his career. From this we gather the following facts: His judicial life covers many years of service. He was for five years and a half a member of the Supreme Court of California and was chief justice of that body when appointed to the Supreme Court of the United States by Abraham Lincoln in 1863. The United States Supreme Court was enlarged in that year to admit a representative of the Pacific Coast who would be familiar with the conflicting titles and the mining laws of that section. Chief Justice Taney was at the head of the court when Justice Field took his seat upon the bench, and among the associate justices was Justice Wayne, who had sat with Chief Justice Marshall. Since Justice Field's appointment three chief justices and sixteen associates have passed away. When his resignation goes into effect he will have held office longer than any predecessor on the Supreme Bench. During his term of office he has written 620 opinions and during his entire legal service has voiced the decision in 1,042 cases. Justice Field is eighty-one years of age. He will receive the full salary of an associate justice—$10,000 a year—for the remainder of his life.

The Evening Post. (Chicago, Ill.)

Stephen J. Field is and always has been a Democrat, and yet he was appointed to the Supreme Court by the first Republican president. From the day he ascended the bench, more than a third of a century ago, down to the present time, the influence of his strong, active, and powerful intellect is traceable in all the proceedings of the highest tribunal of the land.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

He is a man of ability and firmness, but has never been remarkably popular, nor have his decisions as a judge been allowed to pass without criticism; but it is generally acknowledged that he is honest, and whatever errors he may have made have grown out of his strong prejudices. He will carry into his retirement warm testimonials of respect from the president and from his associates on the bench.

The Journal. (New York, N. Y.)

Unfortunately the public is not likely to be the gainer by this venerable jurist's retirement. On matters in which corporate interests have not been opposed to those of the public, Justice Field has illuminated the bench by his brilliant and penetrating intellect and his profound learning.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The selection of Attorney-General McKenna as his successor is now generally expected, especially

as he comes from Justice Field's judicial circuit. He has had considerable experience upon the bench and would doubtless make a creditable record in the Supreme Court, though there is no reason to suppose he would add much luster to it.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

Independence in thought and action, with intellectual and moral fearlessness, have characterized Justice Field's course on the grave and important questions that have come before the court. Profoundly learned in the law, he has been no blind follower of precedent, but his mind has been open to advanced ideas and able broadly to grasp the new facts and conditions of modern social and political life. Both from the length of his term and ability of service, Justice Field will always hold an honored and enduring place among the great jurists who have adorned that greatest of American courts.

THE UNION PACIFIC RAILROAD FORECLOSED.

THE sale at auction by the United States government of the main line of the Union Pacific Railroad was finally consummated at Omaha, Neb. November 1. The property was sold to the Reorganization Committee of the road, the only bidders, for $53,528,532.76, of which $39,883,281.87 is for the railroad property itself and $13,645,250.89 for the bonds held in the sinking fund. In addition to these bonds the sinking fund holds about $4,500,000 cash which reverts to the government, making the total amount to be received for the property about $58,000,000. This sum equals the entire amount of both principal and interest due to the government for money advanced for the main line of the road. There is, however, a debt of something over $12,000,000 still due for loans made to the Kansas Pacific branch of the Union Pacific. This branch is now advertised to be sold December 15. The negotiations for the sale of the Union Pacific began during Mr. Cleveland's administration. Last January the Reorganization syndicate agreed, in case of a sale, to put in a bid of not less than $45,754,000 for both the main line and Kansas Pacific division, including the sinking fund. During the present administration the bid guaranteed was raised to about $50,000,000 and later to about $58,000,000 for the main line alone.

(Rep.) The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

A great many people hold an exaggerated idea of the amount the government has invested in the Union Pacific. The lien of the government is upon that portion of the system extending from Council Bluffs to Ogden and from Kansas City to a short distance east of the west boundary of Kansas.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Taken all in all, the arrangement by which the government's claim on the main line is satisfied in full is a desirable one and is creditable to the administration. The sale of a part of the Kansas Pacific, it is feared, will not result so satisfactorily.

(Rep.) Cincinnati Commercial Gazette. (O.)

The present administration has saved the country $12,272,339 on the main line of the Union Pacific alone, and Attorney-General McKenna now announces that every dollar put into the road, in all its branches, will be realized by the approaching sales of the line in November and December. This magnificent result will stand as one of the most signal and splendid achievements of the present Republican administration.

(Dem.) Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

By a corrupt and collusive agreement the only property which is worth enough to pay the whole debt is to be sold for a part only of that debt. The administration gives away the government's opportunity to make the whole of the property pay the whole of the debt.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

The syndicate has been forced to raise its bid to the full claim of the government on the Union Pacific Road, but the allied claim on the Kansas Pacific may be placed in such a condition as to diminish the advantage apparently obtained by the government at present.

(Ind.) Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The general idea regarding the actual transfer of the liens is that the country is well rid of them even at an inadequate price. The most savage critics of the sales cannot blind themselves to the fact that the government has a second mortgage only on the roads. It might fare worse than it is going to if the holders of the first mortage and prior liens were to prosecute their claims without consideration.

(Rep.) Denver Republican. (Col.)

The deal is regarded as so profitable to the purchasers that the stock of the Union Pacific, which carries a heavy assessment, has been rising very rapidly in the market of late, and is now worth more than three times what it was quoted at a year ago.

(Ind. Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

It now remains to sell the Kansas Pacific division, and in order to pay the entire debt due the government on that division it must bring $12,000,000. This is much more than it is worth to the new owners of the main line, and it is contended that they are not obliged to buy it at all, since their agreement to do so, made last January, has been broken by the government. Whether, nevertheless, they will feel bound in honor to protect the holders of the mortgages on the property is a matter for them to decide.

SPAIN'S ATTITUDE TOWARD CUBA AND THE UNITED STATES.

MARSHAL RAMON BLANCO.
The New Captain-General of Cuba.

THE Liberal ministry of Spain upon its accession to power did not delay action. Marshal Ramon Blanco was immediately appointed to succeed General Weyler as captain-general of Cuba and reached the island October 30. The government announced its purpose to grant autonomy to Cuba at once and to push the war to a speedy end. It also declared amnesty to many political prisoners. Spain's reply to Minister Woodford's note from the United States government was received in Washington October 27. An outline of it reported to be semi-official declares that Spain goes into details concerning the filibustering expeditions said to have left the United States for Cuba and expresses the hope that the United States will try to "prevent further violations of international law." Replying to the offer of mediation, Spain hopes the United States will act loyally and correctly in helping Spain to pacify Cuba, especially as autonomy is to be given the Cubans. In the meantime encounters between insurgents and Spaniards in Havana province continue to be reported and a proclamation purporting to be signed by President Capote of the Cuban Republic and countersigned by Generals Gomez and Garcia is circulated in Havana, which declares that the Cubans will not accept autonomy even in the most liberal form. The sensational event of the month has been the rescue of the Cuban girl Señorita Evangelina Cosio y Cisneros from a Spanish prison by the aid of the *New York Journal*.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The appointment of Gen. Ramon Blanco as Weyler's successor in Cuba will be interpreted as heralding the abandonment of the needless brutalities that have made Weyler's name notorious.

Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

General Blanco is likely to find himself as cordially hated in a few weeks as Weyler is. War is war, and Blanco cannot induce the revolutionists to quit by shooting over their heads or issuing amiable proclamations to them. What they are out for is independence.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

The recall of Weyler and the appointment of Blanco is no doubt a concession to American public sentiment, but it is not enough. The only concession that will satisfy public sentiment in this country will be the unconditional independence of Cuba.

The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

It is quite likely that the offer of home rule for Cuba will be made by the new Spanish Liberal ministry in good faith, but there is little reason to believe it will be accepted.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

What is the use of giving the rebels what they declare they will not accept? The time for autonomy, even of the most favorable kind, seems to be past in Cuba, and Sagasta's offer does not embrace autonomy of that character.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

If similar concessions had been made by the British Parliament to the American revolutionary patriots at any time before independence had been in fact achieved by them the thirteen colonies might never have severed their connection with the mother country. It can scarcely be claimed by the most partial friend of the Cuban insurgents that they are within measurable distance of the achievement of their independence of Spain.

The Evening Star. (Washington, D. C.)

It is of the greatest and most pressing moment that the war in Cuba should be stopped, but it is also of the greatest moment that it be stopped in a way to insure against a reopening of it. Would anything short of independence for Cuba accomplish that end?

Denver Republican. (Col.)

If Spain can satisfy the Cubans without granting them absolute independence, it should be permitted by the Americans to do so. While Americans might look upon that as an unsatisfactory end to the struggle, they would have no right to interfere and compel Spain to grant independence if the Cubans themselves did not demand it. The rights of Spain must be recognized by the United States as a neutral power.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The interests of Spain, as well as of Cuba and of humanity, require that the new ministry and its new policy shall have a fair and sympathetic trial.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

There have been all sorts of guesses as to what the note [of Spain to the United States] contains, but nobody pretends to be accurate. It is more

than probable that it is a very temperate, high-toned, and dignified document, and that it will not lead to any trouble between Spain and the United States.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The real blame for whatever successful filibustering has been done rests not with the United States, but with Spain. If she had maintained around the coasts of Cuba a patrol half as effective as that which we have exercised along our extended coast, filibustering vessels would not so easily have landed their cargoes. It is unreasonable in Spain to expect to have all her police work done for her by a neighboring power.

The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

It is not our business to patrol the coast of Cuba to intercept filibusters. That is the business of Spain. If she cannot establish a patrol that will prevent filibusters from landing, how does she expect us to prevent them from departing from some point along a still more extended coast-line? The whole demand is absurd.

HENRY GEORGE.

HENRY GEORGE.

HENRY GEORGE, candidate of the Jeffersonian Democracy for mayor of New York, died at the Union Square Hotel in that city on October 29, of apoplexy brought on, presumably, by his exertions in the campaign. His death, occurring as it did in the closing days of the campaign, threw a new element of uncertainty into the contest and probably had considerable influence on the result. Mr. George is best known as the exponent of the single tax idea—the theory that all revenues should be raised by taxes on land. This doctrine he advocated in "Progress and Poverty" (1880), "The Land Question" (1883), and other books, in speeches delivered in this country and in England, Scotland, Ireland, and Australia, and in his single tax paper, the *Standard*, published in New York. He was also an ardent free-trader, supporting his views in a work, "Protection or Free Trade" (1886). He published a work on "Social Problems" in 1884, and just before his recent nomination for the mayoralty he finished a book on political economy. Mr. George was preeminently a self-made man; he worked his way up through the different stages of office-boy, cabin-boy, sailor, printer, reporter, and editor, and in 1872 he and two partners started the *San Francisco Post*. This paper a few years later was given over to a creditor. Henry George was born in Philadelphia but spent a considerable part of his life in San Francisco, returning to the East in 1880. In 1886 he ran for mayor of New York as an independent candidate, coming in at the end of the contest behind the Democratic candidate, Abram S. Hewitt, and in advance of the Republican candidate, Theodore Roosevelt. Mr. George was fifty-eight years old at the time of his death. One of his two sons, Henry George, Jr., succeeded him as the nominee of the Jeffersonian Democrats for mayor of New York.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

However widely we may differ from Mr. George's economic principles, it is cheerfully admitted that he was a man of the highest personal character, unquestioned honesty, and no mean ability. He made his own way in the world against many obstacles, and was courageous and unceasing in his efforts to extend his views.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

Henry George was a man of undoubted sincerity. There was much in his theories that conflicted with established doctrines, tried and proven systems, and democratic sentiment, but no one questioned the motives of the earnest advocate. He was deeply impressed by the existence and stubbornness of certain abuses, but was unsound in his conception of remedies. According to his lights he was a man of high principles. There was nothing of the demagogue or the charlatan about him, and he repudiated the time-servers and tricksters with unflinching courage.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Undeniably Mr. George deserves the credit of having been foremost in pressing to public notice a new idea in political economy, and—what is even more important—he has stated the whole economic proposition in a way which virtually will force later economists to take his theories into account.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

There is no question of his honesty of purpose. . . . Mr. George had come to be looked upon as a man distinctively the friend of the poorer classes, but he did not use that friendship to incite men to wrong-doing or deeds of violence.

ENGLAND REJECTS BIMETALISM.

SENATOR EDWARD O. WOLCOTT of Colorado and Gen. Charles J. Paine of Boston, two of the three commissioners appointed by the president last April to arrange for an international bimetallic conference, have returned to the United States after an apparently fruitless mission. The commission's propositions were favorably received in France and the French ambassador to England gave his official support to the commission's work in London. He agreed for his government that France would open its mints to the free coinage of silver providing Great Britain would accede to Mr. Wolcott's proposals, one of which was that the Indian mints should be thrown open to free coinage. But the British cabinet, after submitting the latter proposal to the Indian government, decided adversely to it on October 16. Lord Salisbury in communicating this decision to United States Ambassador Hay stated that in view of this fact he did not see the desirability of a monetary conference but would be pleased to consider any other practical suggestions from the United States government.

(Ind.) Providence Journal. (R. I.)

Unless the loss of the gold standard is to be continually invited, there is more reason than ever for the early enactment by Congress of a currency reform measure.

(Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

For some inexplicable reason England's rejection of the American proposal for a conference on bimetalism appears to be regarded by the Bryanites as a victory for themselves. They don't seem to realize that England has simply dug a deep, dark, lonesome grave for the whole free coinage boom, but she has.

(Ind. Dem.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Henceforth India will have a stable rate of exchange, because she has at last deliberately and irrevocably adopted the gold standard.

(Dem.) The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

President McKinley has done what he could, though in vain, for international bimetalism, and it is now the turn of the international bimetalists of the Senate to do what they can to aid Mr. McKinley in his efforts in behalf of currency reform. Will they prove equal to the occasion?

(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The British government's rejection of bimetalism makes that theory hopeless of adoption as an international policy, but it will probably have no effect on the people who last year insisted so fervently that the United States should adopt bimetalism, regardless of what other nations might do. Senator Wolcott's commission will come home with empty hands, but the fight cannot be considered as ended yet.

(Dem.) Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

Let us be thankful that the Republicans who are honestly opposed to the gold standard can no longer be used by the gold machine which has leased the Republican party. Let us rejoice that dishonest Republicans, who falsely pretended to be for silver coinage, because it would beat the Republican party to say otherwise, can no longer wear the mask of international bimetalism.

(Dem.) The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

As you [the Bimetallic Commission] have demonstrated that the plea of international bimetalism is a fraud, and that an international agreement is an impossibility, you have accomplished a work wholly out of proportion in its importance to that which you were appointed to perform. The people of this country, without regard to party, owe you a debt of gratitude.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

In brief, the English government is just fond enough of bimetalism to encourage every other country to go ahead and adopt it.

(Rep.) Denver Republican. (Col.)

If we are to have bimetalism we must secure it through the independent action of our own government, and that can only be accomplished by the election of a president and a Congress in 1900 firmly bound and pledged to reopen our mints to the free and unrestricted coinage of both gold and silver at the ratio of 16 to 1.

The Standard. (London, England.)

Wide-spread satisfaction will be felt because of the deadly blow the bimetallic craze has received and the decisiveness with which the British government has extricated itself from a conference that would have been a mere waste of time.

The Daily News. (London, England.)

The despatch of the Indian government puts an end to the bimetallic craze in this country, and the amazing thing is that the home government should have required so much elementary instruction from India.

Journal des Debats. (Paris, France.)

The British reply has completely decided the question of free silver, which was brought to the front in such a way that, in spite of the improbability of a different solution, it produced a feeling of uneasiness in the business world. We rejoice that the matter has been finally decided.

Le Temps. (Paris, France.)

In view of England's attitude, an international monetary conference would simply involve the risk of fostering grievous illusions. Nobody can say this would be desirable; consequently things are much simplified for France.

NANSEN IN AMERICA.

THE distinguished Norwegian explorer, Dr. Fridtjof Nansen, is making a lecturing tour in the United States. He arrived in New York on the *Lucania* October 23 and was given an enthusiastic welcome by two hundred and fifty Norwegians who met him in the harbor. In the evening he was tendered a reception in Chickering Hall by the Geographical Society. On the 30th he lectured in the Academy of Music to an audience including the arctic explorers Gen. A. W. Greely and Lieutenant and Mrs. R. E. Peary. His lecture was entitled "Life and Explorations in the Mid-Arctic," and related experiences of his journey in 1893–96. The following week he spoke in Providence, New Haven, Worcester, and Boston, being most cordially received all along his journey. In an interview Dr. Nansen expressed the belief that the pole can be reached and that there are several ways of doing it. One is to let a ship drift as he did, another is to use dogs and sleds as Lieutenant Peary intends doing.

DR. FRIDTJOF NANSEN.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Nansen appeals, indeed, to every intelligence and sympathy: to those who care for geographical survey and to those who love the details of scientific investigation, to "record-breakers" and to sportsmen, to those who admire indomitable courage amid dangers and difficulties unspeakable, and to those whose best regard is for the tender and gentle phases of domestic life. Above many, perhaps most, comparable adventurers he appears as a well-rounded character, coming into touch with encircling humanity at every point. He will not fail to find among Americans an earnest appreciation of all phases of his character and of all departments of his work. How far his presence here may stimulate the spirit of arctic research and impel Americans to redouble their poleward efforts is food for speculation. Since the American advance has been surpassed it is a satisfaction to have had it done by so manly a representative of a race so closely bound to our own by strong and tender ties. It is a source of inspiration, too, to have so worthy an exemplar to emulate and, one of these days, to surpass.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Fridtjof Nansen was born an explorer. Three centuries ago his ancestors sailed in arctic seas, and when a child he hunted hares in the woods of Norway until he grew old enough to hunt for islands in the North. He is a thorough scientist and a patriotic Norwegian who was bound that none but his countrymen should have a share in the voyage and glories of the *Fram*.

THE SEAL CONFERENCES.

ENGLAND'S refusal to join with representatives of Russia and Japan to consider the sealing question led to the holding of two conferences. The first one, attended by delegates from Russia, Japan, and the United States, met in Washington from October 23 to November 6. It was the opinion of the government experts that steps must be taken to prevent the extermination of the seals. This led the representatives of the three governments to sign a convention looking to the suspension of pelagic sealing until the herds have had time to recuperate. The text of the treaty is to be withheld until its presentation to the United States Senate for ratification. The second conference, composed of representatives of Great Britain, Canada, and the United States, met in Washington the second week of November.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

If the proof of the comparative harmlessness of pelagic seal hunting be as convincing as it is claimed to be, the reluctance of Canada to present the same at a conference of experts is incomprehensible.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Will England, in the special conference which she is ready to have her experts hold with ours, assent to the conclusions just reached? If so, all may go well. If she objects that her action has been forestalled, and that an endeavor is made to force her hand, she may thank her delays in past years for this result. The American view is strengthened by the adhesion to it of Russia and Japan.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

The unfortunate feature about the position of the

United States is that it has no legal right to extend its jurisdiction over the high seas, even though it may be for the protection of a species of animals that make their home, as it were, on American soil. To interfere with British subjects who may be killing seals on the high seas is an infringement of British rights, and it cannot be justified on legal grounds.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Sir Wilfrid Laurier's announcement that he will take part personally in the sealing conference at Washington between the representatives of the United States and Canada is extremely significant. It shows that the Canadian government has found that it can no longer safely maintain its attitude of hostility to the American policy with regard to the seal fisheries in Bering Sea, and that the whole question has been placed on new and higher ground by the action of the recent conference.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

Undoubtedly the best thing that could happen to us as regards the Bering Sea controversy would be the total disappearance of the seal herd from our territory or jurisdiction, or better still from the world. The poorest kind of an inheritance is to fall heir to a lawsuit, and this is what we gained when we took the Pribyloff Islands under our jurisdiction.

REAR-ADMIRAL WORDEN.

REAR-ADMIRAL JOHN L. WORDEN.

ANOTHER prominent figure in the Civil War passed away October 18 when Rear-Admiral John L. Worden died at his home in Washington, D. C. John Lorimer Worden was born in Sing Sing, N. Y., in 1818. In his sixteenth year he was appointed a midshipman in the American navy and was made a lieutenant in 1846. In 1861 he was despatched to Pensacola with the order that reinforced Fort Pickens and saved it to the Union. After being imprisoned for seven months by the Confederates he was exchanged and was ordered to superintend the building of Ericsson's *Monitor*. He was placed in command of that vessel when completed and in March, 1862, gained the celebrated victory over the *Merrimac* in Hampton Roads. For this service he twice received votes of thanks from Congress and was promoted successively to the grades of commander and captain. He also received resolutions of gratitude from several cities of the Atlantic coast. As soon as his eyes had recovered sufficiently from the injuries received in the engagement he was placed in command of the *Montauk* and with this vessel destroyed the Confederate privateer *Nashville*, protected by the guns of Fort McAllister. He also took part in the blockade of Charleston and in the attack on Charleston by Admiral Dupont in April, 1863. In 1868 he was promoted to the rank of commodore and from 1870–74 was superintendent of the Naval Academy. He was made rear-admiral in 1872 and commanded the European Squadron from 1875–77. In 1886 he was retired at his own request, with the highest sea-pay of his grade.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The death of John L. Worden wipes from the naval register another of the great names which are indissolubly linked with one of the most brilliant periods of American naval history. The commander of the *Monitor* will live as one of the distinctive figures in the war drama of 1861–65. Success and fame came to him at a bound, but he wore his honors with a modesty and simplicity which leave behind them a gracious memory.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

It is not too much to place the name of Rear-Admiral John L. Worden among the list of those heroes whose special distinction is to have performed a service essential to the preservation of the Union. For if the *Monitor* had not rescued the *Minnesota* and whipped the *Merrimac* in Hampton Roads on Sunday, March 9, 1862, nothing can be more certain than that the wooden navy of the North would have been paralyzed and the ports of the Confederacy thrown open to unblockaded trade with England and Europe. The destiny of a nation hung upon the success of John Ericsson's bold experiment in naval architecture.

Army and Navy Register. (Washington, D. C.)

Admiral Worden was one of the few officers of the old *régime* which made the navy so glorious in its achievement and helped to impress an indelible mark of prowess and devotion upon the pages of his country's history.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

When the need next comes, may the country find men as prompt and resolute as John Worden to do their duty.

THE YERKES OBSERVATORY DEDICATED.

ON October 21 The University of Chicago formally accepted another munificent gift. This was the new Yerkes Astronomical Observatory located about seventy-five miles northwest of Chicago, near William's Bay, Wis. The dedication of the building and telescope and their formal presentation to the university were made the occasion of a conference attended by many eminent American and European astronomers. Mr. Charles T. Yerkes of Chicago himself presented the gift, which is valued at $350,000. The observatory has the greatest refracting telescope in the world; the lens is forty-two inches in diameter. Several astronomical discoveries have already been made with the glass.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Not America alone, but the whole world, will reap the fruits of the liberality and enterprise which have given Chicago's rising university an observatory plant unequaled at present in any other quarter of the globe. Yet, however world-wide the spirit in which the new observatory has been dedicated, it is distinctly gratifying to note in the conception and execution of Mr. Yerkes' generous design so many additional evidences of the conspicuous share America has borne in the advancement of practical astronomical research. For national pride may pardonably be quickened by the fact that not only has American public spirit volunteered the means to construct, but that American ingenuity has perfected, the most searching and powerful lens ever delivered into a trained astronomer's hands.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Already it is announced that the new telescope has brought into view a number of asteroids and planets the existence of which was not before guessed, and doubtless this will be followed by other discoveries of a similar character. And yet, after all, the history of astronomy shows that the observations which needed patience have been made by comparatively small instruments. The huge telescopes of to-day can bring the planets nearer, and still it may be questioned if the largest of them will ever be able to show whether there is life on these far-away worlds. It is said that the Yerkes telescope brings the moon within a hundred miles of the observer; but even at that close distance some things would not be visible that might help the observer to form a definite conclusion.

THE W. C. T. U. CONVENTIONS.

FRANCES E. WILLARD.
President of the World's and National W. C. T. U.

THREE important gatherings of white ribboners have been held in the past month—the Dominion Convention at Toronto, October 20–22, the World's Convention at Toronto, October 23–26, and the National Convention at Buffalo, October 29–November 3. The World's Convention was of course the center of interest. It numbered among its delegates women from every continent and almost every civilized country on the globe. The reports given showed that the organization has made commendable progress in the past two years. The growth in membership has been greatest in the United States, where it has amounted to 15,888 persons. The address of the president, Miss Willard, was received with the usual enthusiasm. It was comprehensive in scope, and in spirit thoroughly loyal to W. C. T. U. principles. The resolutions adopted by the convention recorded the unswerving devotion of the Union to total abstinence and its unalterable opposition to any system of licensing or regulating the social evil. They condemned the use of opium and tobacco and the cultivation of the poppy plant in India. The equality of man and woman in the home, in the church, in law, and at the ballot-box was strongly affirmed. Lynching, gambling, and strikes were condemned and the principle of an eight-hour law for wage-earners was approved. Regret was expressed at the failure of the Anglo-American arbitration treaty. Resolutions were extended to Queen Victoria congratulating her upon her resplendent reign. The choice of officers for the next two years resulted in the reelection of Miss Frances E. Willard as president; Lady Henry Somerset, vice-president at large; Mrs. M. C. Leavitt, honorary president; Miss Agnes E. Slack, secretary.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

We are pleased to note that the W. C. T. U. have firmly resolved "never to surrender the principles for which we have always stood as a body, and this we do in the name of God and home and every land." If that band of devoted women should

change its tactics or fall off from its high mission there would be much less in the world to interest and amuse us.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

All fair-minded people will be gratified to learn that a notice to amend the qualifications for membership in this Union by adding the words "without distinction of race and color," when read to the convention by its secretary, was received with tremendous applause.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The Woman's Christian Temperance Union expressed the sentiment of the entire civilized world in its resolutions of regret over the failure of the United States Senate to ratify the arbitration treaty with Great Britain.

GEORGE M. PULLMAN.

GEORGE M. PULLMAN.

THE millionaire car manufacturer, who died in Chicago, October 18, began life in 1831 on a farm in Chautauqua County, N. Y. At fourteen he left school to help provide for the wants of his family, and three years later entered his brother's shop at Albion, N. Y., to learn cabinet-making. When the work of widening the Erie Canal began, about 1850, young Pullman displayed considerable mechanical skill in moving buildings along its banks, and a short time afterward won a reputation as an engineer by raising the Madison Block in Chicago several feet without disturbing the tenants for a single day. One night in 1859 Mr. Pullman, traveling for the first time on one of the rude sleeping-cars then in use, lay awake and thought how the car might be improved. He went back to Chicago and began experiments which resulted two or three years later in the first sleeping-car built on present-day principles. In 1867 the Pullman Palace Car Company was formed. This company now has a paid-up capital of $36,000,000, owns about 3,000 cars, and employs about 10,000 men. In 1880 Mr. Pullman began to build the town of Pullman, in the suburbs of Chicago, as a convenient dwelling-place for his employees. The town now has a population of about 12,000, and is provided with all modern improvements. It has never had a saloon or a jail. Mr. Pullman in his will bequeaths $1,200,000 for the establishment of a manual training school in the place. In addition to being president of the company named above, Mr. Pullman was interested in several railroads and in many Chicago enterprises. His fortune is estimated at about $50,000,000.

The Burlington Hawkeye. (Ia.)

The fact that Mr. Pullman was able to accumulate, and legitimately, so vast a fortune ought to be a matter of gratulation to every American citizen. It demonstrates what can be done under the stars and stripes. There are other mechanics yet to become successful—hundreds and thousands of them. What has this country to gain by the indoctrination of the theories of "social democracy" and populism, which would discourage the poor man from making the effort to accumulate and threaten him with confiscation if he did?

The Railway and Engineering Review. (Chicago, Ill.)

Mr. Pullman believed that true philanthropy and good business sense go hand in hand—that the public could be educated up to high standards and that it would accept, appreciate, and pay for what is really good. He carried the same idea into his consideration of the welfare of what is known as the working class. He believed that what it needed was not charity, but opportunity. He believed in the moral influence of material surroundings, and that the first step toward the improvement of the condition of the poor was to enable them to live in conditions of physical comfort without overtaxing their resources.

The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

There may be little public regret at the death of Mr. Pullman, yet his life furnishes an illustration of what an industrious and thrifty American can do if he is shrewd enough to see his opportunities and active enough to take advantage of them.

The Indianapolis Journal. (Ind.)

Its history [that of the town of Pullman] has proved how difficult, if not impossible, it is for one man to regulate the lives of others, even when his motive is philanthropic and his labors entirely for the betterment of their condition. It is certain to be a long time before any public-spirited capitalist tries a similar experiment.

MILLS HOUSE, NO. 1.

A MODEL hotel for men in moderate circumstances was opened on Bleeker Street, New York City, November 1. It is known as Mills House, No. 1 and is the first of two hotels which Mr. D. O. Mills of New York is erecting for the accommodation of men who desire comfortable lodging and good board at slight cost. The house is a ten-story building of Indiana limestone and white brick and contains 1,560 single rooms, handsomely furnished and well heated, lighted, and ventilated. It is provided with bath-rooms and lavatories, and luxuriously furnished reading, writing, and smoking-rooms free to all guests. Books and games are loaned to guests on application. The uniform price for lodging is twenty cents per night. A restaurant in the building furnishes meals at ten cents and upwards. No gambling, no intoxicating liquors, or intoxicated persons are allowed on the premises.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

There has just been opened in the city of New York a hotel the working of which and its success or failure will doubtless be watched with interest. It makes no boast of being a philanthropic or an eleemosynary institution, the projectors declaring frankly that their enterprise is a business one, and that they look for a profit from it. Its inception is due to the knowledge that in every large city there are many men whose earnings, even when their employment is steady, are small; who are compelled by the very nature of their avocations to appear respectable, and who are often necessarily compelled to expend money on food and lodging which they might otherwise save or put to some practical use. The idea, therefore, has been to provide a place for them at a moderate cost of living, and yet with the comforts which they could secure at a more pretentious establishment. That there is need for such a place, and that men realize the advantages which it offers, is shown by the number of applications which have come from professional workers with small salaries, or who are striving to build up a business and a reputation for themselves.

CHICAGO'S WAR ON DEPARTMENT STORES.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

WAR has been declared against Chicago's great department stores by the smaller traders of the city. The department stores, they say, threaten to ruin every small tradesman in Chicago by a system of selling at cut rates, the concentration of many lines of business under one roof, and the reduction thereby of the cost of operating the stores. Some of the larger stores in Chicago have from sixty to one hundred and fifty departments, and customers may buy in them almost anything, from a diamond necklace to a ton of coal. They operate groceries, meat markets, banks, barber shops, dental offices, and sell dogs, birds, bicycles, horses, and harness; they make photographs, give music lessons, and run employment agencies where domestic and other help may be obtained. In fact, there is no industry unknown to the Chicago department stores. Their "bargain days" have caused the small retailers countless heartaches, and "uptown" merchants decided that something must be done.

With this end in view they formed the Cook County Business Men's Protective Association, and branches were organized in the three large divisions of the city. The membership swelled to about six thousand. The association tried to stop the department store evil by legislation. A bill was prepared, the provisions of which were that no man or firm should conduct more than one line of business under one roof and within four walls. It graded the art of merchandising into about sixty groups. Under the provisions of this bill such firms as Siegel, Cooper & Co., The Fair, and A. M. Rothschild & Co. would have to pay about $150,000 to $160,000 annually in license fees, besides going to the enormous expense of erecting partition walls to enclose each branch of their business. A mass-meeting was held by the small merchants and a committee of three hundred made a trip to Springfield. At Springfield the committee was left in the cold, for the legislature refused to pass the bill.

Two ordinances were then prepared and presented to the city council, which passed them. The ordinances prohibit the sale of meats and provisions and wines and liquors in the same establishment in which dry goods and kindred articles are sold. Warrants for the offending department store proprietors will be forthcoming shortly, the traders say. It is intended to push the matter to the Supreme Court. The fine for the non-observance of the measures has been set at from $25 to $200. In case of conviction the association will lay claim to half the amount of the fine, the other part reverting to the city treasury. No suits have been begun as yet against the department store proprietors, although the ordinances are violated in every department store daily. It is intended to organize in wards and make the branches of the Cook County Business Men's Protective Association a powerful factor in politics and in shaping legislation.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

October 7. The president appoints consuls at Edinburgh, Barbadoes, Colon, and Hankow.

October 8. Dr. George H. Bridgman of New Jersey is appointed United States minister to Bolivia.

October 11. The Supreme Court of the United States begins the October term in Washington.

October 12. The American Board of Commissioners for Foreign Missions meets in New Haven.

October 13. Dr. Jerome H. Raymond is inaugurated president of the West Virginia University at Morgantown.———The fifteenth conference of Friends of the Indian opens at Lake Mohonk.

October 17. The Minnesota Presbyterian Synod adopts measures to counteract the spread of Mormonism in that state.

October 19. The New York Synod of the Presbyterian Church meets in Jersey City, N. J.

October 20. Secretary of War Alger issues an order establishing a military reservation on St. Michael Island, Alaska.———Prof. James M. Crafts is elected to succeed Gen. Francis A. Walker as president of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

October 21. The centennial of the launching of the frigate *Constitution* is celebrated in Boston. ———President McKinley appoints Medical-Director W. K. Van Reypen surgeon-general of the navy to succeed the late Newton L. Bates.

October 22. In his annual report General Miles recommends that Congress authorize two more regiments of artillery and five of infantry.——— Charter Day is celebrated in Princeton, N. J.

October 23. Secretary Long issues an order that removals shall be made from the Navy Department and navy-yards only for just cause and upon written charges which the accused shall be allowed to answer.———The sealing conference is organized in Washington, with delegates from the United States, Russia, and Japan present.

October 24. A train on the New York Central Railroad falls into the Hudson River near Garrison's, N. Y., and nineteen persons are killed.

FOREIGN.

October 8. Professor Slaby, experimenting with Marconi's wireless telegraphy in Germany, exchanges messages without wires at a distance of about twelve miles.

October 11. The Irish Independent League in Dublin demands home rule and praises Parnell's policy.

October 12. The Turkish government proposes to the powers disarmament of both Christians and Mussulmans in Crete, the appointment of a governor by the sultan, and the formation of a *gendarmerie* corps.———The troops forming the Mamund punitive expedition destroy twenty-six fortified villages and many of the insurgent natives are killed.

October 15. The king of Corea proclaims himself emperor.

October 17. Windsor, Nova Scotia, is destroyed by fire, rendering three thousand persons homeless.

October 18. The Greek and Turkish commissioners appointed to conclude a definite treaty of peace meet in Constantinople.

October 19. The Servian cabinet resigns, supposedly on account of the return of ex-King Milan to the Servian capital.

October 20. A French post in Madagascar is attacked by a band of Sakalavas and many of the garrison killed.———British forces in India sustain severe losses in dislodging tribesmen.

October 21. The Turkish government grants permission to the Thessalian refugees to return to their homes.———Several towns and villages on the island of Leyte, one of the Philippines, are destroyed by a cyclone.

October 22. The Japanese government agrees to arbitrate the entire dispute with Hawaii.

October 23. A new cabinet is formed in Servia, with Dr. Wladan Georgevitch as premier.——An exciting debate takes place in the French Chamber of Deputies regarding the price of bread.

October 24. Sir Richard Henn Collins is appointed lord justice of appeals in England.

November 5. Soldiers are arrested in the French garrison at Nancy for distributing anarchist literature.——Great Britain declines to take part in the Florida Fisheries Conference.

NECROLOGY.

October 8. Ex-United States Senator John R. McPherson, N. J.

October 18. Newton L. Bates, surgeon-general of the navy and President McKinley's family physician.

October 22. Justin Winsor, librarian of Harvard University, Cambridge, Mass.——Dr. Newton Bateman, president of Knox College, Galesburg, Ill.

October 27. Duchess of Teck, cousin of Queen Victoria.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR DECEMBER.

First Week (ending December 3).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter X.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XI.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"A Study of Schiller."
Sunday Reading for November 28.

Second Week (ending December 10).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter XI.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XII.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"The Eastern Policy of Germany."
Sunday Reading for December 5.

Third Week (ending December 17).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter XII.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XIII.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"The Trend of American Commerce."
Sunday Reading for December 12.

Fourth Week (ending December 24).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter XIII.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XIV.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Christ in Art."
"Winter Bird-Life."
Sunday Reading for December 19.

FOR JANUARY.

First Week (ending January 8).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter XIV.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XV.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"The City of Berlin."
Sunday Reading for January 2.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR DECEMBER.

First Week.

1. Essay—Woman's part in the history of Germany.
2. Select Reading—"Of Women," from Madame de Staël's "Germany."
3. Essay—Schiller's contemporaries.
4. Historical Study—Germany in Schiller's time.
5. A Political Study—Municipal reform in New York.

Second Week.

Moltke Day—December 3.

And, though the warrior's sun has set,
Its light shall linger round us yet,
Bright, radiant, blest.

—*From "Coplas de Manrique" (translated by Longfellow).*

1. Subjects for Short Talks—Moltke's boyhood; his early manhood; his visit in the East; his accomplishments; Moltke as a strategist; Moltke's character; Moltke's motto.
2. A Paper—Moltke's influence on the reconstruction of the map of Europe.
3. A Character Study—The trinity who made the New German Empire possible.
4. A Paper—Moltke's military campaigns.
5. A Talk—The Supreme Court of the United States.*

Third Week.

1. Essay—The commercial interests of Germany, France, and the United States.
2. Debate—Resolved: That the state should provide for technical, as well as for liberal, education in the common schools.
3. General Discussion—Do the results accomplished by college settlements justify their continuance?
4. A Talk—German patriotism and lese-majesty.
5. General Conversation—The necrology for the month.*

Fourth Week.

1. An Essay—The influence of the German press compared with that of the American press.
2. A Study—Nature as depicted by James Lane Allen in "The Kentucky Cardinal."
3. A Talk—The public amusements of the community.
4. General Discussion—What a village improvement society can do for this community.
5. Table Talk—Spain and the United States.*

FOR JANUARY.

First Week.

1. Essay—The great men of Germany.
2. A Paper—The rivers of Germany.
3. An Address—A visit to the principal cities of Germany.
4. Book Review—"The Art of Living," by Robert Grant.
5. Table Talk—The news of the week.

*See *Current History and Opinion.*

*See *Current History and Opinion.*

QUESTIONS ON "THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

The following questions on "The Social Spirit in America," prepared by Prof. C. R. Henderson, may be used as subjects for interesting discussions at the weekly meetings of the circle:

Chapter XI.—Political Reforms.

What documents contain the laws of the United States and of each state?

Give an outline of the Constitution of the United States.

What is the social use of a political party?

What are the aims of "civil service reform"?

What is the "Corrupt Practices Act"?

Describe the Australian ballot.

Chapter XII.—The Social Spirit in the State School System.

What is the social function of the free common school?

Why does a democracy specially need general education?

What are some of the objections to making education "free" and "compulsory"?

What is your nearest school doing to promote good taste?

What are the chief obstacles to good work in rural schools?

Draw up an argument for manual training schools.

How can you secure or improve a free library?

Chapter XIII.—Voluntary Organization of Education.

Give examples of schools not supported by the state.

Why should not church and private schools receive a part of the school tax?

Describe the Chautauqua method.

Give an account of a woman's club known to you.

Explain University Extension.

Explain the Home Library scheme.

What is the object of a settlement?

Chapter XIV.—Socialized Beauty and Recreation.

Why is play important in education?

What is the use of beauty?

Why is music of highest value?

Describe some effort in your state to make a street, town, or cemetery beautiful.

How is a Village Improvement Society organized?

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

P. 228. "Minnesingers." Lyric poets of the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. These poets were men of noble descent and most of their songs were in the Swabian dialect. They accompanied their pieces on the viol and sometimes furnished entertainment for princes and ladies at court by poetical contests.

P. 229. "Madame de Staël [stäl]. A noted French author born in 1766.

P. 229. "Salic law." The code of law used by the Salians, or Salic Franks, a German tribe who invaded Gaul in the fifth century and under the leadership of Clovis acquired possession of the country and founded the French monarchy. One clause of the Salic code prevented women from inheriting "any landed estate which is not an acquired but an inherited possession in the family." In France women could not succeed to the throne.

P. 244. *Schadenfreude* [shäd'en-froi-de].

P. 244. "Aristides" [ar-is-tī'dēz]. A famous Athenian general and statesman of the fifth century ostracized by the influence of Themistocles, another influential Athenian.——"Shell." Each citizen voting for the ostracism of any one dropped into an urn provided for the purpose a shell bearing the name of the person he wished exiled.

P. 261. "Mühlhausen" [mül'how-zen].

P. 267. "Rococo." A style of decorative art which was composed of a confused mass of scrolls, foliage, and animal forms.

P. 269. "Sarreguemines" [särg-mēn']. The French name of Saargemünd [sär'ge-münd], a town in Lorraine.

P. 277. "Junius." The pseudonym used by the author of a series of papers directed against the British ministry which appeared in a London paper between 1768 and 1772. It is now thought they were written by Sir Philip Francis.

P. 281. "*Feuilleton*" [fē-lye-toN'].

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

P. 192. "Amiel" [ä-mē-el']. A Swiss scholar and professor of moral philosophy at the Academy of Geneva, in 1853. He died in 1881.

P. 194. "Bastille" [bas-tēl']. A noted state prison in Paris.

P. 200. "École Professionelle." School adapted to business or trades.

P. 232. "Denison." A British philanthropist who worked among the poor and criminal classes of East London. He inaugurated a system of education for the poor, the development of which resulted in the university settlements. He died in

Australia in 1870.——"Toynbee." An English philanthropist (1852–83) who worked among the poor in Whitechapel. Toynbee Hall, an institution established for the purpose of furnishing educational facilities and means of recreation for the poor, is a monument to his memory.

P. 234. "Mazzini" [mät-sē'ne]. A revolutionist and patriot of Italy. He died in 1872.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"CHRIST IN ART."

1. "Merson." A French artist born in 1846.

2. "Guido Reni" [gwee'do rā'nee]. An Italian painter who lived from 1575 to 1642.

3. "Gérôme" [zhā-rōm']. A French artist born in 1824.

4. "Cranach" [kran'ak or krä'näK]. A celebrated German engraver and painter who lived from 1472 to 1553.

5. "Munkacsy" [moon-kä'chē]. A famous Hungarian artist of the present century.

6. "Correggio" [kor-red'jō]. An Italian painter of the sixteenth century.

7. "Murillo" [mū-ril'ō or moo-rēl'yō]. A Spanish artist of the seventeenth century.

8. "Titian" [tish'an]. A Venetian painter. He died in 1576.

9. "Giulio Romano" [joo'lē-ō rō-mä'no]. An Italian architect and painter of the first half of the sixteenth century. He was a pupil of Raphael.

10. "Vinci" [vin'che]. An Italian painter and sculptor. He died in 1519.

11. "Morghen" [mor'gen]. A famous Italian engraver, born in 1758.

12. "Hunt." An English artist of the nineteenth century.

13. "Rubens" [roo'benz]. A Flemish painter who lived from 1577 until 1640.

"THE EASTERN POLICY OF GERMANY."

1. "Dreikaiserbund." Alliance of the three emperors. In the autumn of 1872 the emperors of Germany, Austria, and Russia with their chancellors met at Berlin, at which time the Dreikaiserbund was informally organized for the purpose of dominating continental politics.

2. "Manteuffel" [män'toif-fel]. A Prussian politician.

3. "*Status quo.*" A Latin phrase meaning the state, or condition, in which things were or are now.

4. "Kutchuk-Kainardji" [koot-chook'-kī-närd'jē]. A treaty between Turkey and Russia, concluded in 1774, by which Russia obtained possession of territory in the Crimea and on the Black Sea.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

1. Q. For what does Tacitus praise the German women? A. For their chastity.

2. Q. What next to history affords a clue to the character of a nation's women? A. The literature of a country.

3. Q. What criticism does the author make on the German ideal woman? A. She is a little too self-forgettingly devoted, too slavishly worshiping, not to make one feel a lack of that strong individuality found in women of Slavonic race.

4. Q. What is the result of the uneventful life of the German woman? A. Her virtues are tinged with the idiosyncrasies of her surroundings.

5. Q. Among what classes do the German women enjoy an independence approaching that of English women? A. Among the German aristocracy and the plutocracy.

6. Q. How does the average of married happiness in Germany compare with that in England? A. It seems to be higher.

7. Q. What are some of the characteristics of the typical German husband? A. Lack of appreciation of his wife's qualities, restlessness of temperament, and selfishness.

8. Q. What is noted as one of the brightest sides of the German character? A. That their best intellect seems to have remained wonderfully sober in the midst of intoxicating success.

9. Q. What do the Germans fear? A. Social democracy and the Philistine spirit.

10. Q. What are some of the characteristics of the German Philistine? A. *Schadenfreude*—joy over the misfortunes of others; envy and arrogance.

11. Q. Of what nature is the patriotism of the Philistine? A. It is peculiarly arrogant and aggressive, yet windy and empty.

12. Q. What is the favorite pastime of the Philistine? A. Slander.

13. Q. Why is the Philistine spirit doubly dangerous? A. Because it appeals even to intellectual men on their weakest side—their vanity.

14. Q. To what influence is attributed the coarseness and arrogance allied to a high standard of book education to be met with in Germany? A. The Philistine influence.

15. Q. What has been a great failing of the Germans? A. The preference for what is foreign.

16. Q. What does the author say in regard to the manufacturing and commercial interests of Germany? A. That during the last fifteen years they have increased enormously.

17. Q. In what may be found the explanation of Germany's success in foreign trade? A. Not so much in the cheapness as in the superior adaptability of the German as a producer.

18. Q. What are some of the advantages possessed by the German? A. Cheapness of labor, their excellent technical school, and adaptability in applying their skilled knowledge to the changing demands of the market.

19. Q. What is one of the most striking causes of recent German commercial success? A. The genius of adaptability combined with an extraordinary concentration and earnestness of purpose, which shows itself down to the meanest details of commercial life.

20. Q. What besides commercial adaptability has contributed to Germany's success? A. The patronage and support of the government, the thorough education of its merchants and its clerks, and the careful training and superior education of its workmen.

21. Q. By what is the German adaptability accompanied? A. By lack of originality of taste and production in commerce.

22. Q. By what is the want of practical ability in the nation abundantly proved? A. By the almost medieval character of their beds and by their disregard of the laws of health in the lack of ventilation in their houses.

23. Q. To what does the German talent for adaptation often lead? A. To downright piracy and even fraudulent imitation.

24. Q. How is injustice often done to themselves as well as to foreigners? A. By the loose construction of the German laws for the protection of trade-marks and designs.

25. Q. What effect have German importations had on the public taste? A. A deteriorating effect.

26. Q. In almost every German trade what process is observable? A. The process of copying and underselling each other.

27. Q. What is the attitude of the German toward journalism? A. He fears its power, but as a rule he does not respect it.

28. Q. What is the character of political partisanship in the press? A. Very violent.

29. Q. What is the present status of the German press? A. It is an energetic exponent of public opinion, its news is varied, and it is carried on on broad commercial principles.

30. Q. How do the German papers attempt to increase their circulation? A. They adopt the *feuilleton*, with its anecdotal gossip, and sometimes they are forced to publish serial stories.

31. Q. In what does the German press surpass the English? A. In the dispassionate, thorough *résumé* of a political or social question as well as in criticism, particularly on art and science.

32. Q. In what does the main typical difference between English and German papers consist? A. In the *feuilleton*.

33. Q. How does the German press compare with the French? A. It is far purer than the French.

34. Q. What is the one moral blot on German journalism? A. The character of its advertisements.

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

1. Q. What is the first political duty of a patriotic citizen? A. To become acquainted with the framework and activity of the national, state, city, county, and township governments and to learn the duties of each official in the different branches of government.

2. Q. For what is this systematic study a preparation? A. The intelligent reading of the daily newspaper.

3. Q. In governmental affairs through what does the individual generally act? A. A political party.

4. Q. What is a healthy, worthy party? A. A voluntary organization of citizens for promoting the welfare of the whole nation.

5. Q. What method is suggested for securing the most perfect municipal administration possible? A. The united action of the voters in entire disregard of party affiliations in the election of city officials.

6. Q. On what principle is civil service reform founded? A. The principle of merit.

7. Q. What is thought to be the weakest point in our government? A. The management of our cities.

8. Q. What is the purpose of the new ballot-system? A. The suppression of intimidation and bribery at elections.

9. Q. What does the referendum enable the people to do? A. Check the legislature after it has acted.

10. Q. What right and power does proportional representation carry with it? A. The right and power of any respectable number or class of citizens, even if the majority is against them, to send legislators to the law-making bodies of the commonwealth or city to present their views, urge their rights, and to check the arbitrary and tyrannical action of those who chance to be in power.

11. Q. Upon what does the quality of the schools in a democratic country largely depend? A. Upon the cooperation of the people.

12. Q. What is meant by the school-system? A. That social institution by which the entire people consciously and of set purpose seeks to transmit its knowledge and its higher ideals to the next generation.

13. Q. With what is the school closely connected? A. With the home?

14. Q. How do private schools endanger the common schools? A. They tend to alienate their patrons from the common schools, the tax for which is then regarded as an injustice.

15. Q. How may citizens assist the public schools? A. By sympathetic study of education, by listening intelligently to expert leaders of schools, by generous financial support, and by activity in promoting improvements.

16. Q. What are leaders of kindergartens doing to promote the reciprocal relations of home and school? A. Calling conferences of mothers.

17. Q. What plan for the improvement of country schools is proposed? A. Consolidation of the small schools into a large school at the center of population.

18. Q. For what teaching is there a growing demand? A. The teaching of human duties and virtues on the general basis of social obligations.

19. Q. How is the fact that education is a growth of the free social spirit, native to our soil, made evident? A. By the creation, maintenance, and endowment of many schools and associations which owe nothing to the governments save charters, protection, and exemption from taxation.

20. Q. What are some of these schools and associations? A. Parochial schools, the Chautauqua System of Education, colleges and universities, women's clubs, household economic associations, and farmers' reading circles.

21. Q. Out of what two considerations has the University Extension movement grown? A. The considerations that scholars are in possession of truths which the world needs to guide its conduct and enlarge its vision, and that scholars owe a part of their life to the people whose labors sustain them and whose institutions protect them.

22. Q. What three methods of instruction are employed by the University Extension work? A. The lecture-study, correspondence, and class-study methods.

23. Q. What is the very essence of the social settlement? A. The gift of one's self to a certain locality.

24. Q. By what is the confidence of Americans in education manifested? A. The establishment of missionary schools among the negroes and Indians.

25. Q. What summer work has already been inaugurated in crowded portions of New York City? A. Vacation schools for the care of poor children when the regular work of the public schools is suspended.

26. Q. What are two valuable reformatory agents? A. Beauty and play.

27. Q. What is Jevons' opinion in regard to the deliberate cultivation of public amusement? A. That it is one of the principal means to a higher civilization.

28. Q. What are the two forms of esthetic enjoyment? A. Passive appreciation and active creation.

29. Q. In regard to the appreciative and creative powers of the poorest people, what have the social settlements shown? A. That they can appreciate the best pictures and music, and that they have unsuspected resources of entertainment within themselves.

30. Q. What is the art which every family can help cultivate? A. The art of making the face of nature beautiful.

31. Q. What is generally the cause of the ugliness of our towns? A. They are laid out and built up without a definite plan.

32. Q. To what is the movement to preserve and improve our natural scenery closely connected? A. The movement to promote good roads.

33. Q. What expenditures are classed by Professor Giddings under the head of "culpable luxury"? A. Expenditures for objects which are esthetically bad; which do not increase the sum of beauty, of refinement, and of general cultivation in the community.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—III.

1. Of what was the duchy of Prussia once the fief?
2. When did the relation end?
3. What electorate was the nucleus of the kingdom of Prussia?
4. When was the duchy of Prussia united to that electorate?
5. Who was the third king of Prussia?
6. What did Macaulay say of Frederick William I.?
7. By whom was laid the foundation of Prussia's military power? What seemed to be his ruling mania?
8. With whose administration does the greatness of the Prussian monarchy begin?

9. What important war occurred during his reign?

10. After this war what rank did Prussia occupy among the European nations?

GERMAN LITERATURE.—III.

1. What Roman historian wrote about the early Germans?

2. When did he write?

3. What was Luther's most inspired hymn?

4. What was his belief concerning the education of the young?

5. How was secular literature looked upon at the time of the Reformation?

6. Who was the founder of the German school-system?

7. Who was the most productive poet in the first half of the sixteenth century?

8. About how many poems did he write?

9. When did the first newspaper (*Zeitung*) appear in Germany?

10. What was the source of the first novels of Germany?

NATURE STUDIES.—III.

1. About how many species of birds are known to science?

2. What is the name of the class to which birds belong?

3. Between what two classes are birds placed and to which are they more closely related?

4. From what kind of ancestors have birds descended?

5. Of what does the evidence of such descent consist?

6. How does the distribution of birds compare with that of other animals?

7. How may this be accounted for?

8. In what three relations are birds valuable to man?

9. In what lies the economic value of birds?

10. Why should hawks and owls be protected?

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.

1. Who was the first chief justice of the United States?

2. Of how many members does the Supreme Court consist?

3. By whom and for how long are the members appointed?

4. When does the court hold its sessions?

5 Who was the inventor of the turret-ship?

6. On what national import was this invention?

7. In what conflict was its value first made known?

8. When was the Monroe Doctrine declared?

9. What treaty was signed soon after?

10. What is the oldest existing newspaper in the United States?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR NOVEMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—II.

1. About the tenth century. 2. Borussi, or Porussi. 3. Bishop Adalbert of Prague; he was hewing down their sacred oak. 4. They feared that if they adopted Christianity they would lose their freedom. 5. About the middle of the thirteenth century when the Teutonic knights began a crusade against them. 6. From the official dress of the order of Teutonic knights, a white mantle and black cross. 7. Frederick William, the Great Elector. 8. The fall of Warsaw and the independence of Prussia. 9. Frederick I., son of Frederick William, the Great Elector. 10. He purchased it of Emperor Leopold I. with the promise to furnish troops for the War of the Spanish Succession just threatening, to support the house of Austria in the debates in the Diet, and to vote for its princes at the imperial elections.

GERMAN LITERATURE.—II.

1. For a century or more the works were preserved orally, having been handed down largely by tradition. 2. Hartmann von Aue, Wolfram von Eschenbach, Gottfried von Strassburg, and Walther von der Vogelweide. 3. Most of the romances were taken from some other language, chiefly from the French. 4. The literature of the church. 5. The political condition of the empire. 6. The university at Prague. 7. Books became cheap and literature was no longer the privilege of the rich, but became the business of the burghers. 8. New High German. 9. Luther's writings permanently fixed the literary language of Germany. 10. In 1534, at Wittenberg.

NATURE STUDIES.—II.

1. Protoplasm. 2. A coating of loose cells called the root-cap. 3. By storing the starchy and living material into a special layer of the bark. 4. Knobs or buds consisting of outer layers of leaves or scales which protect the delicate young leaves within. 5. By the formation at the point where the leaf-stalk joins the branch of a row of cork cells, in appearance like the prolongation of the epidermis. 6. By hard coats of poisonous juices. 7. In early autumn. 8. In the warm days of early spring. 9. About the first of June. 10. In October; in moist sand.

CURRENT EVENTS.—II.

1. The Indianapolis Board of Trade; January 12 and 13, 1897. 2. To create a sentiment in favor of

an improved system of banking and currency. 3. A committee of fifteen was appointed to urge upon Congress the necessity of passing a law authorizing the president to appoint a monetary commission of eleven members to consider ways and means for putting into effect the propositions of the convention. 4. The Stone Bill; after passing the House it was sent to the Senate, where it was referred to the Finance Committee to await further action until the next session of Congress. 5. July 24, at 4:06 o'clock p. m. 6. July 24, at 12:01 a. m. 7. July 4; in the Pittsburg district. 8. Ohio, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Illinois, and West Virginia. 9. Three; in 1900. 10. Every four years by an electoral college the members of which are elected by universal direct suffrage.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882–1901.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"*The humblest life that lives may be divine.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner; S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

CHEERING letters from all directions indicate that the Class of '98 intends to reach the goal with the best possible record behind it. Reports from various points of the compass show how earnestly the work is being done. Many circles have already renewed for their fourth year and are planning to be represented at Chautauqua next summer. Among other reports comes one from an army post out in Utah, where the assistant surgeon and his wife send in their memoranda for the past year and their renewals for the coming year.

ANOTHER member up in the highlands of North Carolina finds herself quite behind, owing to the many hindrances, but if she does not finish with her class will join the ranks of '99. She writes: "I enjoyed the reading very much, though the memoranda were hard for me to fill out because I had to leave school so early; and then besides I have to do my reading in the store and am often hindered by customers coming in." One can realize how much such an isolated classmate enjoys the feeling of association with the great multitude of fellow workers.

STILL another gives a little different side of life. She writes from a busy town in one of the northern states: "I am too much of an invalid and too weak physically to fill out the memoranda, as in this I have no one to help me, but my mother, who is in her seventy-second year, has assisted me in the reading. My father was a member of the Pioneer Class and an enthusiastic Chautauquan, and I can but love the Chautauqua work."

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"*Fidelity, Fraternity.*"

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—John A. Travis, Washington, D. C.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlysle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, England; Miss Alice Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tientsin, China.

Secretary—Miss Isabelle T. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer—John C. Whiteford, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Trustee—Miss M. A. Bortle, Mansfield, O.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

THE Patriots are making splendid progress on their year's work, and the following letter indicates the spirit which animates many of the class: "All through the past summer I was unable to copy my memoranda until the week just past. This so isolated and discouraged me that I concluded again to give it all up; but when I think of those fresh new books awaiting all who will avail themselves of the priceless opportunity, and recall the fact that I have read through five distinct though disconnected years and yet never completed the course, I resolve to mail you my memoranda, procure the books and delightful magazine, and keep right along with the Class of '99."

ANOTHER member of the class who has read part of her Chautauqua Course some years ago proposes to finish up during the next two years and graduate with '99. As a teacher in the Indian Schools at Cheyenne Agency, South Dakota, she naturally leads a busy life, but writes: "I feel greatly the need of systematic study." This isolated classmate lives seventy-five miles from the post-office, and receives her mail only once a month. The Patriots send her hearty greetings.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"*Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor.*"

"*Licht, Liebe, Leben.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—Rev. John A. McKamy, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, Canisteo, N. Y.; J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer.—Miss Mabel Campbell, 53 Youngstove Ave., Cohoes, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

THE drooping spirits of many a member of the Class of 1900 have been greatly cheered by a recent communication from the central office, reminding them that it is not necessary to fill out the memoranda in order to graduate. Those who are a little behind in the reading and who have been fearful lest they should not accomplish as much as they would like have taken hold with new enthusiasm and may well hope to come out with flying colors at the end of the year. Indeed there is no more hopeful time in the history of the class than at the beginning of its second year. With the first year the plan is wholly an experiment, and many students who start with high hopes meet with disappointment, yet to many of these success is by no means an impossibility, and the experience of the first year will help to win the battles of the second.

AN enthusiastic member of the class writes from Kentucky, where, although she is of necessity a lone reader, she is carrying on her work with enthusiasm enough to supply a whole circle. She sends for a ribbon badge of the class, and makes interested inquiries about a class pin. As the preceptress of an important school, her cares are many, but she writes: "The reading is a tonic to me in the midst of our work. 'The Social Spirit in America' is the most fascinating book I have ever read. I find myself reading and reading and thinking and thinking as I have never thought before."

ANOTHER member of the class is a good illustration of the fact that what ought to be done usually can be done. In connection with her first year as a Chautauquan, she not only returns the memoranda for the regular reading, but for the Garnet Seal Course, the Special French and Greek Courses, and the Current History Course, and writes, "I am a farmer's wife and a very busy woman, and so have not done as much supplementary reading as I hoped to do. I have wanted to take the Chautauqua Course ever since it started, but put it off every year because I was 'so busy.' Bishop Vincent's words at Winfield last summer inspired me to try it, and my thirteen-year-old boy has enjoyed the course even more than I have. We both hope to come to Chautauqua in 1900."

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS."

"Light, Love, Life."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—William H. Mosely, New Haven, Conn.; Rev. George S. Duncan, D. C.; John Sinclair, New York; Mrs. Samuel George, W. Va.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Harriet Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—COREOPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

THE Twentieth Century Class is growing rapidly in all parts of the country. The class president was greatly cheered, while on a trip through the Yellowstone in September, to meet members of his class at several points in the West, and to learn of the formation of new circles. He sends greetings to all classmates and hopes for reports from all parts of the country showing what the various members are doing to recruit the ranks.

REQUESTS for information are reported as coming into the Buffalo office in great numbers. The class already numbers among its ranks people of every calling, and also from widely distributed parts of the globe. Nearly twenty new members have been reported from Mexico, and the enrollment in that country promises to be a large one. Another pleasant addition to the ranks is to be noted in the Jewish Chautauqua Circle of Selma, Ala. The Jewish branch of the C. L. S. C. was organized some years ago under the direction of Dr. Berkowitz of Philadelphia, and all of the later C. L. S. C. classes include members from this department. The class is most happy to welcome into its ranks this fine circle from the far South.

A SPECIAL note from the chancellor is being sent to all members with the Membership Book. This note has done much to put inspiration into the class, and it is hoped that every member will read it frequently and be inspired to do his best. Much enthusiasm is to be found everywhere over the work of the German-Roman year, and if every member of the class will keep his eye steadily fixed upon the goal which he is to reach in 1901 the C. L. S. C. will begin the twentieth century with a graduating class worthy of the new era.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

MEMBERS of the Class of '97 have already passed into the ranks of the graduates. During the month of October, many hundreds of diplomas have gone out all over the country into the hands of the graduates who were unable to attend the summer Assemblies and receive their diplomas there. Already many of these graduates have entered upon the regular work of '97–98, wishing to add seals to their diplomas, and in part to review the work of the four years, and also to take up the new subjects presented in the course for this year.

A GREAT variety of courses claim the attention of these young graduates. The Current History Course is deservedly a favorite, and graduates who have had their special interest awakened in some one

line of study as touched upon during the four years are now following up this interest with the study of a special course.

NEW graduate organizations are being formed in many communities, and these promise to make the work of the graduates more effective. A special circular for the direction of graduate societies known as S. H. G. organizations has been prepared by the central office, and every graduate who can effect an organization of the S. H. G. is urged to send for the circular.

MISS SUSAN HALE'S delightful course, entitled "A Reading Journey through England," has awakened much interest among the graduates, and several circles are taking up this course.

THE following letter shows how these special courses are studied under what might be considered most unfavorable conditions. A Wisconsin student states with regard to his study of the Bible Course, that, while he has read the Bible in a haphazard sort of way, his present work under a systematic plan gives the whole book an entirely different meaning. This student, who is also taking the Shakespeare Course, writes, "I now live on the shore of a small lake in the wood, nine miles from any railroad or town, and two and one half miles from the road. We probably will not see any one except a stray hunter or fisherman until spring, except as we go to the town or post-office." Up in this isolated community this Chautauquan keeps up a small circulating library, and makes his camp a center of good influences.

THE older graduate classes, from the Pioneers of '82 to last year's Class of '96, are all represented by active workers. The Class of '88 are preparing for their decennial next year, and are sending out an attractive circular, which includes announcements of their plans. Every member of '88 who has not received this circular should notify the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo. The Class of '96 have provided themselves with some most attractive class stationery, and the percentages from its sale go to help along the class building. The welcome news has been received that the building is being finished on the inside, and next year will present a most attractive appearance to the classes who make their home there.

THE following interesting letter comes from Mr. Alden, a member of the Class of '95: "We have been spending a very quiet and restful summer here in North Carolina mountains. Of course we have missed Chautauqua, but it seemed desirable to try one summer in a place where it was really possible to rest. We think of everything there very often, and on Sundays at five o'clock gather on the plaza of our 'inn' in company with the other boarders and neighboring visitors and join in the old Vesper Service, 'Day is dying in the west.'"

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"*We Study the Word and the Works of God.*" "*Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst.*"
"*Never be Discouraged.*"

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1897–98.

WILLIAM I. DAY—October 25.
BISMARCK DAY—November 16.
MOLTKE DAY—December 3.
PLINY DAY—January 23.
JUSTINIAN DAY—February 10.
FREDERICK II. DAY—March 20.
MOHAMMED DAY—April 3.
NICCOLO PISANO DAY—May 28.

WHAT OUR SECRETARIES ARE DOING.

EVERY part of the wide Chautauqua field feels the stir of new activity at this time of year. State and county secretaries and a vast number of unofficial workers are establishing new circles and reorganizing old ones. Every Chautauquan throughout the land, presumably, heard the peal of the Bryant bell at high noon on the 1st of October, for the little circle of Chautauquans who live at the center of the great circle feel the responsibility of their position and an interesting report of the exercises has been given by a local paper. At half-past eleven a. m. all members of the C. L. S. C. upon the grounds gathered on the veranda of the C. L. S. C. office and formed a procession, which included not only graduates from a large number of the different C. L. S. C. classes, but also no less than seven members of the Guild of the Seven

Seals. The band in full uniform led the procession, while the Chautauquans and their friends, numbering more than one hundred, marched down to the pier, escorted by strains of festal music, and were there greeted by the ringing of the chimes. Promptly at twelve o'clock the great Bryant bell rang out its call to the Chautauqua Circles and the Chautauqua readers everywhere to begin the new year. Every member of the circle who could reach the long bell-rope lent a hand in helping the old bell to do its duty, and the ringing was hearty enough to send the vibration around the world. After the ringing of the bell, the president of the circle, Miss Hazen, made a brief address to those present, and the exercises of the day closed with a picnic, for which no more charming spot can be found than the shores of old Chautauqua.

UNIONS and circles are sending reports of progress by every mail. In Brooklyn, N. Y., always a strong center of Chautauqua influences, the new year was opened with a reunion on the evening of October 21st. A Vesper Service was conducted by Dr. Pardington, and an address delivered by Dr. Jesse L. Hurlbut, general superintendent of the C. L. S. C. Following the address, an informal presentation of the books for the coming year was given to the audience, after the manner of the initiation used at Chautauqua this summer for the Class of 1901. At the close of the meeting a delightful reception was given to the graduates. A number of new circles are being organized under the direction of the Union and a very attractive course of lectures and social reunions has been prepared for Brooklyn members. The program includes entertainments on Thanksgiving night and on Washington's birthday, several social gatherings, and three important lectures by Professor Northrup on the following subjects: "Imperial Berlin and the German Army," "German Life in the Valley of the Rhine," and "The Classes and the Masses in Medieval Times." Altogether, the Brooklyn Chautauquans are to be congratulated upon their attractive program for the coming season.

IN connection with the N. Y. East Conference of the M. E. Church, Miss C. A. Teal of 29 Spencer Place, Brooklyn, has been appointed organizer, and members of the C. L. S. C. or pastors of churches who desire her help in organizing circles will find her ready to lend a hand. Rev. W. D. Bridge, who is establishing new circles in the neighborhood of Boston, reports new circles all through his territory. The Chautauqua Sunday Vesper Service is being used very widely and pastors in all parts of the country are organizing circles.

DR. W. L. DAVIDSON, one of the field secretaries of the C L. S. C., has organized a fine circle at his home in Cuyahoga Falls, Ohio. Under the inspiration of Dr. Davidson we may expect to see this circle carry its full membership of twenty-five right through the four years' course.

MR. GEORGE H. LINCKS, secretary for Hudson County, N. J., writes that one hundred and fifty new members will be the probable enrollment from his county. A new circle known as the Scudder was organized with more than sixty members, and in addition to the reorganized circles a number of new ones will be established. In the West and South the secretaries write of a more hopeful attitude on the part of people generally; better times have brought new courage, and Mrs. Dawson, from the Pacific coast, sends word of bright prospects in all directions. In Nebraska, Mrs. Corey, the state secretary, is working with much zeal. New circles are reported in different parts of the state. One of the county secretaries who has recently reorganized a circle in his own community writes, "I am seventy years old, and this is the eighth year of Chautauqua reading for me." The state secretary had C. L. S. C. headquarters at the Epworth League Assembly, at the G. A. R. reunion held at Lincoln, and at the State Fair at Omaha. At the latter she reports a registration of Chautauqua readers from Oregon, Colorado, South Dakota, and Iowa.

IN Iowa several Chautauqua Rallies have been held; one at Waterloo, which is a Chautauqua town indeed, as it holds a successful Assembly every summer, and keeps no less than four circles in active operation every year. In Des Moines the state secretary, Mrs. Shipley, has organized two new circles, the result of a delightful reunion held at her own home. Circles in other parts of the state report an increasing membership, and at Clarinda, where an Assembly was held for the first time this summer, the circle has reached very large proportions.

A CHAUTAUQUA Rally was held in Chicago on the evening of October 9. Bishop Vincent addressed the meeting, and a large company of Chautauqua members and their friends took part in the exercises. Bishop Vincent has held the Sunday Vesper Service at all of his recent fall conferences in Missouri, Iowa, Michigan, Ohio, and Pennsylvania, and many pastors who attended these Vesper Services have gone back to their communities, carrying the Chautauqua influence into countless homes.

MANY circles are glad to make use of the Chautauqua badges, either at their regular meetings or on public occasions. The Chautauqua badge is only a modest bit of class ribbon, but it is full of significance, and the various colors, old gold, gray, blue, or olive, indicate that the owners belong respectively to the freshmen, sophomores, juniors, or seniors among the hosts of Chautauqua undergraduates. These little ribbons can be secured from the C. L. S. C. office at Buffalo for five cents each. Aside from these, silver and gold monogram

badges of simple but attractive design may also be secured. A little circular giving the various styles and classes will be sent upon application to Miss Kimball at the C. L. S. C. office, Buffalo, N. Y.

A DELIGHTFUL report has been received from the Pierian Circle at Stillwater, Minn. This circle, as is well known to many Chautauquans, is held within the walls of the state prison at Stillwater. An average attendance of thirty members has characterized this circle ever since its formation in 1890, and a great deal of straightforward hard work has been done by the members. The quarterly report of the secretary shows a present membership of thirty-three. The many changes in this Chautauqua circle necessitate very careful planning on the part of the circle librarian, to see that the members receive their books promptly, and that all are ready for work, but the machinery seems to move very smoothly and the circle is to be congratulated upon its excellent plan of organization. The program presented for the quarterly meeting is very attractive in its appearance, and includes papers by the members upon various important topics; book-lore, social equality, and the speed of electricity were among the subjects discussed. A number of visitors were present, and the whole program reflected great credit upon the members of the circle.

A MODEL CHAUTAUQUA CIRCLE.

EVERY Chautauqua circle is governed to some extent by local surroundings and by environments peculiar to itself, but some of the features which have made so successful the Emerson Circle of Alliance will (for it is certainly by the exchange of ideas and the experience of others that we gain most of that which is good in this life) surely be of some benefit to all others which can adopt them.

Thirteen faithful members comprising the Emerson Chautauqua Circle of Alliance, O., finished the course in June, 1894. Contrary to the unlucky features suggested by the number of members, the year had been a most successful one; the social part of the meetings was not neglected, and each one seemed to be inspired with an increased appetite for literary culture. The year's pleasant associations closed with a well-arranged social gathering, held at the home of one of the members. This seemed to be a fitting close for the year, and when good-bys were being said it was unanimously agreed to make the closing event of each following year so attractive that no one would want to drop out before the readings were duly completed. A visit to Chautauqua that summer by the members in a body so stimulated each one with enthusiasm for the work that the year of 1894-95 started out with a circle of thirty members, and of that number all but two remained until the end of the year. The interest continued to grow, and so successfully had the meetings been conducted that when the roll was called at the beginning of the year 1895-96 thirty-seven members were on hand to take up the work. This seemed almost too many for a single circle, but there was no such thing as a division of that happy and congenial company of young people, and matters were so adjusted to accommodate the weekly meetings in a number of the homes that the machinery was soon running along smoothly into another year, whose termination was no less brilliant than the previous ones.

The French-Greeks then came together for organization in the fall of 1896. Applications for membership threatened to overwhelm the officers, aud before a formal organization was effected the membership was limited to thirty-six as a matter of expediency, and this action seemed to be the best that could be devised for the good of all concerned. The system and rules which were adopted worked admirably. A careful record of the work of each member was kept by the secretary, and a system of grading established. At each meeting the roll was called, members answered to their names with a quotation or current event, and reported the credits earned for the week. As a penalty for poor work the half of the members receiving the lowest percentage for the whole year was to banquet the circle at the end of the year. Thus an incentive was made for each member to do his best, and the friendly rivalry established brought forth every effort from all.

The banquet was duly held at our best hotel on June 20, and was one of the most elaborate social events ever held in the city. According to an established precedent, all arrangements were kept secret by the losing side, which made it more interesting to those having the banquet in charge than to those who had been winners in the contest. It had also been previously understood that those on the winning side were to prepare the toasts for the program upon subjects furnished, but on this occasion the losers bravely decided that notwithstanding the fact that they had fallen short in the work during the year (from causes beyond their control, of course) they were still able to furnish toasts at their own banquet, so some surprises awaited the honored guests when no toasts were assigned them.

How could there be a more fitting close to the winter's study of literary and scientific work than a social event of this nature? It is needless to say that the next year will open with still greater interest. With Chautauquans the world over, we hope to make still further progress, ever keeping in mind the words of the poet,

Too low they build who build beneath the stars.

CLARENCE O. SCRANTON,
Secretary Emerson Circle.

NEW CIRCLES.

VERMONT.—The promptitude with which the Informals at Randolph have chosen their name and elected their officers shows them to be already zealous and interested Chautauquans.——The pastor of the Congregational Church at North Bennington will give impetus to the work of a circle recently established in that place.——A progressive organizer sends five names from Royalton.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Chautauqua idea has taken hold upon a band of nine energetic people at North Attleboro.——Worcester comes forward with a membership of seven ready to make the start.——Two names are registered from Princeton.

CONNECTICUT.—This state reports two promising circles pledged to 1901; Derby launches out with twenty-one members and Ansonia takes pride in sixteen wide-awake readers.

NEW YORK.—The sixteen 1901's at Roxbury have at once established their identity by calling themselves the Bonny-brook Circle.——Reinforcements to the number of fifteen are entering the work of the Twentieth Century Class at Stockton.——A trustworthy band of five at Frewsburg have joined forces with the Class of 1901.——Among the many recruits for the new class are circles formed at Schenectady and Cleveland.——Avon is also giving a good corps of workers to the cause.

NEW JERSEY.—Jersey City can hold its own with any city as an exponent of Chautauqua enthusiasm and as a firm believer in spreading the work. The largest beginning ever made by a circle in Hudson County is recorded for the sixty and more who joined ranks with the hosts of Jersey City readers as the result of a meeting in the First Congregational Church on October 11. The circle is not confined to the membership of the church, but is thrown open to all who believe in self-improvement and are willing to take the course of reading. On October 8 the First Methodist Church was the scene of an equally important organization for Chautauqua study, resulting in the enrollment of fourteen members. The assistant pastor of the Tabernacle Congregational Church has successfully organized a circle, the initial meeting showing a dozen members. The recruits for the new class from the Heights number eight.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Good material for the new class is furnished in the little band of five organized at Bradford.——The reading course is to have a trial from several people at Waynesburg.——Five enthusiastic Pittsburgers have formed a circle.

MARYLAND.—The course of the English year, 1894-95, has been chosen as the work of a small circle at Annapolis.——The Chautauqua work is taken up with great zeal by eight literary people of Baltimore.

TEXAS.—The class at Nacogdoches expects great benefit from their pursuance of the work, and if they are faithful in their part they will not be disappointed.

INDIAN TERRITORY.—Distance from the C.L.S.C. center will not lessen the loyalty of the five beginners at Wynne Wood.

OHIO.—An enterprising crowd of young people of Troy have organized under the name of the Students' Fraternity Chautauqua Circle.——Chautauqua interest is spreading among the people of Hough Avenue Congregational Church, Cleveland. A Home Circle is also organized in this city.——Valuable additions to the Class of 1901 are found in the well-equipped circles at Swan Creek and Chillicothe.

INDIANA.—True Chautauqua loyalty is manifested by a member of '91 at Elkhart who has succeeded in forming a new class in that place. Let the good work go on.——Indianapolis reports a promising band of readers.

ILLINOIS.—Five ladies and two gentlemen at Plainview have made a good beginning in the German-Roman year.

MICHIGAN.—The Chautauqua Vesper Service held in the Congregational Church, Bay City, was the direct means of adding three new names to the twelve already pledged to the work.——A half-dozen resolute people of Litchfield have joined the ranks of the beginners.

MINNESOTA.—Tracy contributes to the list of 1901's sixteen readers.——A corps of workers at Minneapolis will hold weekly meetings.

IOWA.—A small but energetic circle is well launched at Riverton.

MISSOURI.—Carthage, which has already so many loyal Chautauquans, sends a list of names for the new class.

MONTANA.—A club of fourteen at Dillon will take up the work in sociology.——With a membership of sixteen and a full list of wide-awake officers the circle at Great Falls has begun the reading.

OLD CIRCLES.

MAINE.—The Dirigos of Lewiston are preparing for the winter's campaign with three additions to their number.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—The '99's are in the majority at Canaan.

VERMONT.—"I cannot imagine such a thing as failure for the Burlington Circle," writes the scribe of that enthusiastic band. They are affiliated with the Y. M. C. A. and are delightfully located.

MASSACHUSETTS.—"Epworth Circle, Worcester, has begun the season's work and will meet regularly to talk over the reading and to benefit by individual criticism."

CONNECTICUT.—On the last day of August the Joel Barlow Circle of Redding held a Chautauqua

picnic in which their friends joined them. A unique ornament for the dinner table consisted of a ham garnished with nasturtiums and decorated with a C. L. S. C. monogram in cloves. After dinner the picnickers had their pictures taken and then listened to a report of the Chautauqua Assembly.——The Classes of '96, '98, '99, and 1900 are represented in the circle at Wapping.——The second year's work of the circle at Greenfield began the last day of September

NEW YORK.—Early in October the circle at Mount Vernon inaugurated its third year with an enthusiastic meeting in which the president gave a telling account of what the circle had already done and what they should expect this year. This circle has thirteen '99's and thirteen '01's.——Prophetic of a successful season's work are the beginnings of the Hawthorns at Corning, the Wawayandas at Bridgebury, and the Edelweiss Circle of New York.——The well-marshaled forces at Carthage, Newburg, Adams Center, and Norwich give evidence of being a power in Chautauqua work.——Sixteen '99's and one new member compose the circle at Oneida.——The Alumni Association of Syracuse is alive to the interests of its *alma mater*, as is shown by the report of the annual meeting held October 4. Officers were elected, arrangements made for the formation of a new circle, and the report of the year's work was read, after which the delegate to Chautauqua made her report in a pleasing and entertaining manner.

NEW JERSEY.—Culver Circle of Jersey City was reorganized recently at the home of the president. The Una Circle has started out to win fresh laurels. They meet every Monday evening.——A new name is added to Pemberton Circle.

PENNSYLVANIA.—"The Irving Circle has entered upon its seventh year with bright prospects. They hold weekly meetings of from two to three hours each. Class work is to be inaugurated this year together with talks and quizzes on popular educational subjects. This circle is located in the bright little town of Sellersville and is the foremost of all organizations."——Stirring reports come from the Vincents at Cochranton, the Whittier Circle at Minersville, and the Renaissance Circle at York, organized in '92, and now taking a special course.——Troy has a circle organized in '95.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—A flourishing circle in Washington has been doing good work for three years and is still loyal to the cause.

GEORGIA.—Chautauqua is well represented in Decatur in a circle of varied membership, the regular readers numbering about a dozen, while at times twenty-five are in attendance at the meetings.

KENTUCKY.—One charter member remains in the circle which was organized at Richmond fourteen years ago. The circle is as loyal as in its youth, and is making great plans for the future.——On October 1 the Chautauquans at Mt. Sterling reorganized.

OHIO.—"We cannot begin to tell the benefit we have derived from the now acquired habit of reading good literature," writes the secretary of a loyal circle at Sidney.——Six Laniers are renewing their work in Paulding.——Buckeye Circle, Cincinnati, and McPherson Circle, Fremont, are giving strict attention to Chautauqua work.

INDIANA.—Thoroughly prepared for the study of the new books are the circles at Knightstown and Decatur.

ILLINOIS.—Electa Circle, Chicago, has reason to be proud of its aged members. One has finished the course in her seventieth year, and another begins in her seventy-fifth year.——The Shakespeare Course is followed by a goodly number in Carlinville.——Several new names are reported from Harvard.

WISCONSIN.—The Westfield Circle has reached its first mile-stone and now with three new members is pursuing the work with spirit.——A circle at Orfordville is doing good work for the Chautauqua cause.

IOWA.—A charming souvenir program is received, accompanied by a newspaper account of the Manchester Alumni entertainment held at Pythian Castle early in October. Pythian Castle was charmingly decorated, appropriate addresses were made, the principal one being the "Past and Future of Chautauqua Work," by Judge E. P. Seeds. At the close of the entertainment ice cream and cake was served and the remainder of the time occupied in social converse.——The Gilman Rustic Circle is held in high esteem for its zeal and enthusiasm in Chautauqua literary work.——The Trip to England Course has found favor in the eyes of the Monday Afternoon Club of twenty-five at Dubuque.——Four years ago five busy people of Creston met and formed a circle, which soon doubled its number by each old member bringing in one new one. The next year the membership was doubled in the same way. In '96 a branch society was formed and the graduates have now formed a Society of the Hall in the Grove.——Officers are elected for the Wild Rose Circle of Sheffield.——1901 forms a large majority of the circle at Valley Junction.

NORTH DAKOTA.——"At the frontier post of Fort Yates a courageous class of eight meet for review and light entertainment once in two weeks, and these meetings are 'red-letter days' in the long winter of this semi-arctic region."

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

THE approaching holiday season brings from the publishing houses a large number of volumes, among which the purchaser of Christmas gifts will easily find one to suit his fancy. This department of THE CHAUTAUQUAN gives a glimpse of these books, in the publication of which the author has taken into his confidence the artist and the publisher, the result being an unusually large number of books which are literary, artistic, and handsomely bound.

Copyright by D. Appleton & Co.
HALL CAINE.

Following the publication of "The Christian," by Hall Caine, which was reviewed in the columns of THE CHAUTAUQUAN for November, D. Appleton & Company are putting out many valuable and attractive volumes. One of them is "Curious Homes and their Tenants,"* to read which creates a keen and sympathetic interest in the different members of the animal kingdom. It includes succinct accounts of the manner in which animals from every zone manifest human traits, with a description of their dwellings and those of the cliff-dwellers. The pictorial portion of the book is exceedingly attractive and adds to the impression made by the textual contents.

Some of nature's most wonderful treasures may be found in the ocean, and fortunate is the youth who can visit the seashore and study the beautiful objects fresh from their native place. For those who must obtain their knowledge second-hand, a small volume entitled "The Hall of Shells"† will serve as an introduction to a wider study of marine zoology. The information imparted is in the form of a simple story into which are woven appropriate mythological tales. Included in the book are several illustrations which reflect the spirit of the text.

For the purpose of giving to children useful information in an attractive form Oscar Phelps Austin has written a story which he calls "Uncle Sam's Secrets."‡ A farmer of West Virginia who has sold some mountain land receives in payment, besides gold and silver, five $500 bills on which ink is accidentally spilled. These defaced bills he sends by a step-son, Dan Patterson, to Washington to be exchanged for new ones. Dan is admitted to a postal car, visits the mint and other interesting places in Philadelphia, is arrested, released on bail, and finally arrives in Washington, where more trouble awaits him. The story is interesting and well told and the conversations are filled with facts relating to the history and government of the United States. The text is appropriately illustrated with full-page pictures of interesting places.

A collection of essays on animal life bears the title "Wild Neighbors."* They are entertaining studies of the haunts and habits of some of the undesirable though not uninteresting quadrupeds found in the United States, to which is added a chapter on the intelligence of animals and animal training. The gray squirrel, coyote, badger, porcupine, woodchuck, raccoon, skunk, and American panther are the animals about which the author has written many interesting and important facts. The two dozen pictorial representations are in perfect harmony with the contents of the essays.

From Ernest Ingersoll's "Wild Neighbors." Copyright, 1897, by The Macmillan Co.
A RED SQUIRREL.

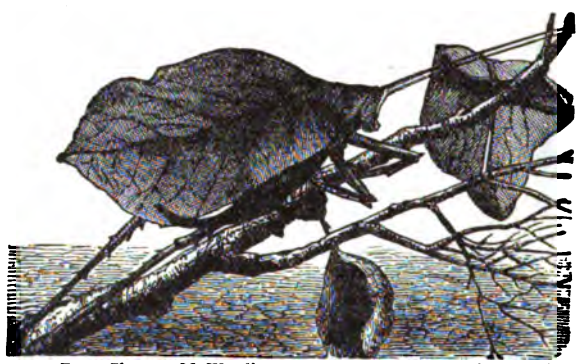
THE late Lord Tennyson† having endeared himself to the whole world by his exquisite verse, a memoir by one who knew him intimately has been awaited with eager expectancy. In producing this memoir the son tells us in the prefatory pages that he has followed the wishes of his illustrious father in making the account of the principal events of Tennyson's life brief and in suppressing so far as possible his own individuality. The memoir is con-

* Curious Homes and their Tenants. By James Carter Beard. 298 pp. 65 cts.——† The Hall of Shells. By Mrs. A. S. Hardy. 198 pp. 60 cts.——‡ Uncle Sam's Secrets. By Oscar Phelps Austin. 367 pp. 75 cts. New York: D. Appleton & Company.

* Wild Neighbors. By Ernest Ingersoll. 297 pp. $1.50.——† Alfred Lord Tennyson. A Memoir by his Son. Two vols. 539+551 pp. $10. New York: The Macmillan Company.

sequently made up largely of quotations from many poems and unpublished manuscripts; of diary notes kept by Lord Tennyson, by his wife, and by the author of the present work; and of many interesting letters written by Lord Tennyson and by a large number of his friends. Numerous foot-notes and appendices contain additional information. All these sources are made to contribute to the one object of the work—to give the reader a true idea of the nobility of character of one of the world's greatest singers. Two large volumes are required to contain this wealth of biographical material and at intervals there are interspersed pictures of Tennyson, his wife and children, and views of Farringford and Aldworth. There are also facsimiles of the original manuscript of four short poems, one of them being "Crossing the Bar." The volumes are printed in large, clear type and neatly bound in green cloth.

No cover could be more suggestive of the contents of a book than is that of Professor Weed's "Life Histories of American Insects."* Entomological specimens of various shapes, sizes, and colors on leaf forms of tan is a design as striking as it is artistic. Opening the book we find that it contains twenty-one full-page plates and a large number of small sketches illustrating the text, which, as the title indicates, presents the histories of many insects. In a plain, simple manner, without superfluous technical names, the author describes each insect, its habits, and its haunts, though in most cases the scientific name is given. It is a helpful book for the non-professional student of nature.



From Clarence M. Weed's "Life Histories of American Insects."

Copyright, 1897, by The Macmillan Co.

A LEAF INSECT.

The national pilgrimage to the town made famous by the vision of Bernadette Soubirous is the subject exploited by Émile Zola in "Lourdes."† The events of the five days, three of which were spent at Lourdes, are set forth in such a powerful and highly realistic manner that the reader will not be able to forget the pilgrimage, the Lourdes, and all it means to the credulous. A fine study of the relation between the psychic and physical conditions is also here presented.

The compiler of "The Chautauqua Year Book"* has displayed a keen appreciation of the beautiful gems of truth that may be gathered from the world's abundance of literature. This little volume is made up of numerous quotations—several for each day of the year—which represent the highest talent in literary circles, and each contains a thought in harmony with that expressed by the Bible text for the day. It is a scholarly and helpful work, imparting to the reader many ennobling and inspiring thoughts to cheer and encourage him to strive for that which is highest in life. The beauty of the contents is reflected in the covers, which are decorated with an artistic design in gold. The excellent typographical work should also be mentioned as one of the factors contributing to the production of a fine example of book-making.

The "Chautauqua Booklet Calendar for 1898"† is also edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. Besides the Scripture texts and other excellent quotations for each day of the year it includes the C.L.S.C. and the different class mottoes, and a class directory containing the names of the classes with the flower or emblem for each. It is encased in dainty covers.

Lerwick, in the Shetland Islands, is the home of the Borsons, whom Amelia E. Barr has made the chief actors in "Prisoners of Conscience."‡ The influence of paganism on the lives of these people, though they are Christians and firm adherents of the creed of the Shorter Catechism, is made very evident. There is a consequent weirdness in the story which entices the reader from page to page, to learn that faith in Christ triumphed over creed and over paganism in spite of the sorrows and tragedies of life. Several illustrations reproduce the scenes described by the author.

About thirty years is the period of time over which Dr. S. Weir Mitchell's story of the American Revolution‖ extends. It is autobiographical in style, being a recital by Hugh Wynne of the exciting events of his life. While setting forth the dangers

* Life Histories of American Insects. By Clarence Moores Weed, D. Sc. 284 pp. $1.50.——† Lourdes. By Émile Zola. Translated by Ernest A. Vizetelly. Two vols. 388+400 pp. $2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

* The Chautauqua Year Book. Selected and edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. 387 pp. Boston: The Pilgrim Press.

† The Chautauqua Booklet Calendar for 1898. Edited by Grace Leigh Duncan. Syracuse, N. Y.: University Press. Eaton & Mains.

‡ Prisoners of Conscience. By Amelia E. Barr. 240 pp. ——‖ Hugh Wynne. By S. Weir Mitchell, M. D. Two vols. 306+261 pp. $2.00. New York: The Century Co.

From Elbridge S. Brooks' "The Century Book of the American Revolution."

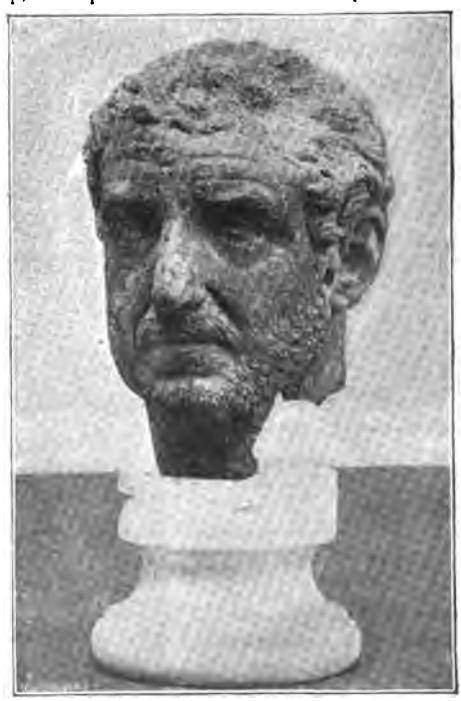
Copyright, 1897, by The Century Co.

WHERE WASHINGTON MET LEE AT MONMOUTH.

of a war in which he was an active participant he has given us a kindly picture of his dearest friend, Jack Warder, and portrayed equally well the character of his strongest foe, a cousin and an unscrupulous Tory. He also depicts the manners and customs of Philadelphia society in that period with the simplicity and the perspicuity of one who is thoroughly familiar with what he describes, making a very realistic picture of that stormy period. It is a powerful American story and one which every one should read.

The company of young people who last year visited the homes of many noted Americans have taken another trip with the same genial uncle. This time they visit places whose historic interest dates from the American Revolution. From Boston one fine morning they rode out to Lexington and Concord, where they studied the important events which took place there during the century. This was followed by a journey to the battle-fields of the North and the South, during which they learned the story of the struggle for independence. The conversation of the young people is animated and filled with information concerning people as well as places. All this is told by Elbridge S. Brooks in his happiest vein, making a very attractive story* of the revolutionary period of American history. The author has brought into service the photographer's art to make his work more impressive, the result being pictorial representations of many events, places, and people of interest.

The book entitled "The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome" is well adapted to the purpose for which the author intended it —"for a companion-book for students and travelers who visit the existing remains and study the latest excavations of ancient Rome."* The author is an Italian archeologist. In 1877 he was appointed director of excavations by the Italian government and a short time afterward he became professor of Roman topography in the University of Rome. He is therefore eminently qualified by education, scholarship, and position for the authorship of such a book. In describing the ruins of ancient Rome and the excavations which have been made, the



From Rodolfo Lanciani's "The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome."

Copyright, 1897, by Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

BRONZE HEAD FOUND IN THE TIBER.

* The Century Book of the American Revolution. By Elbridge S. Brooks. Illustrated 250 pp. $1.50. New York: The Century Co.

* The Ruins and Excavations of Ancient Rome. By Rodolfo Lanciani. 644 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

author has divided the volume into four books. The first is devoted to general information concerning the topography of Rome. The soil, climate, hydrography, geology, aqueducts, walls, and fortifications are some of the topics treated. The Palatine Hill, its ruins and excavations, is the subject of the second division. In this there is an account of the origin of the city of the Palatine Hill and a description of its temples, palaces, and other monuments of which only ruins remain. In the third book the author treats of the Sacra Via from the Colosseum to the Capitoline Hill, describing the buildings and monuments which were once the pride of every Roman. The remainder of Rome is delineated in the last book. Each of these books is divided into sections treating of different subjects, the bibliographies of which immediately follow. This systematic arrangement of the text makes the volume a valuable reference book, as do also the appendix and the two indexes. Besides this vast amount of information, written in clear, concise sentences, the book contains over two hundred pictures, maps, and plans of buildings.

Life among the peasantry of Ireland is portrayed by Jane Barlow in her "Irish Idylls."* They are pictures of homely life in Connemara, drawn with a facile, ready pen, and give the world a glimpse of the joys and sorrows, the hatred and love, the glad hopes and bitter disappointments which come to even the most lowly. They are sympathetic sketches which cannot but arouse the kindly interest of every reader. The present edition of these idyls is copiously illustrated by excellent pictures, the material for which, we are told, was obtained by the artist on a trip to the Connemara boglands taken for that express purpose.

From Jane Barlow's "Irish Idylls." Copyright, 1897, by Dodd, Mead & Co.

LISCONNEL PIGS.

It is from biographical works as well as from formal histories that students may obtain valuable information concerning different periods of a country's development. "The Story of Marie Antoinette"* while exhibiting a very candid portrait of one of the queens of France also gives the reader a clear idea of the etiquette and customs of court life in the eighteenth century, of the intriguing in political circles, and of important events in the historical development of France. The volume is written in a simple, straightforward way which makes it easily readable and attractive. Not less interesting are the excellent full-page illustrations, which are reproductions of famous paintings.

Rudyard Kipling has tried his hand at an American story† with very successful results. The hero is a youth of sixteen, the son of a multi-millionaire, and he is exceedingly disagreeable when he is introduced to the reader. A summer with Gloucester fishermen near the Grand Banks produces a wonderful trans-

* Irish Idylls. By Jane Barlow. 329 pp. New York: Dodd, Mead & Co.

* The Story of Marie Antoinette. By Anna Bicknell. 314 pp.——† Captains Courageous. By Rudyard Kipling. 323 pp. $1.50. New York: The Century Company.

formation which the author reveals while vividly portraying life on board a schooner during the fishing season. Skilfully the author has wrought into his narrative a spirited account of a fast run from Los Angeles to Boston of the private car "Constance." It is a bright, entertaining story.

A class of individuals whose importance in the industrial economy of America has been little understood is that to which the herdsmen of the plains belong. The erroneous notions of cowboys as a class conveyed by fiction is dispelled by "The Story of the Cowboy"* as told by E. Hough, a chapter from which appeared in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for August. He first explains how the American cattle industry developed from herding on the Mexican plains, a development in which much honor is to be accorded to the cowboy. He then describes the ranches of the North and the South, following which the real history of a cowboy's life begins. His outfit, his horse, every feature of his work, his amusements, social customs among the cowboys, the nester, the rustler, and warfare on a ranch are all described with minuteness in clear, forceful English. It is an impartial, sympathetic delineation, which rivets the attention of the reader until the last page is finished. The illustrators, William L. Wells and C. M. Russell, have represented in several excellent full-page pictures the cowboys doing some of their most interesting work.

From E. Hough's "The Story of the Cowboy." Copyright, 1897, by D. Appleton & Co.

THE COWBOY.

The title of a recent book by F. Anstey is "Baboo Hurry Bungsho Jabberjee, B. A.,"† a title quite incomprehensible until the introduction is read. There it is explained that the honorable gentleman is "an able B. A. from a respectable Indian University" who has come to London to enter the Inns of Court. The present volume is his own account written for *Punch* of his experiences in London society, and he also expresses his opinions on various subjects of more or less importance, as bicycling, the art of the old masters, the laureateship, and the inter-collegiate boat-race. The style of the recital is just what might be expected, grandiloquent, facetious, showing an ignorance of the subtilities of the English language. The artist has given us a picture of the Hindoo and several of his London acquaintances.

To the long list of books about the Maid of Orleans Mary Hartwell Catherwood has added "The Days of Jeanne d' Arc."* It is a simple, fascinating tale in which Jeanne is delineated as a pure, fervently religious, and patriotic maid, seeing visions which lead her to conduct the siege of Orleans for the salvation of France. Life in the fifteenth cen-

* The Story of the Cowboy. By E Hough. Illustrated by William L. Wells and C. M. Russell. 359 pp. $1.50.—† Baboo Hurry Bungsho Jabberjee, B. A. By F. Anstey. 288 pp. New York: D. Appleton & Company.

* The Days of Jeanne d' Arc. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. 278 pp. $1 50. New York: The Century Co.

tury and the places made famous by the presence of Jeanne d'Arc are effectively described and into the story there is woven a delicate sentiment which touches the heart of the reader.

The genial pedantry of Donald G. Mitchell makes the reading world again his debtor by the publication of the fourth volume of his English Lands and Letters series.* In a paragon of prefaces he forecasts the contents of the book, conjuring with a few neat pen-strokes dainty word-silhouettes of those whose full-length portraitures follow later. From the Lake School poets to the Victorian writers is the scope of the discussion, and the author displays that accurate scholarship and candid, if sometimes partial, judgment which alone can render such a work valuable. Supplementary to the American Lands and Letters series, these books will be given an honored place among literary criticism.

The little fellow who the day after Christmas comes suddenly to the rueful consciousness that his last bit of Santa Claus candy is at that moment gratifying his palate experiences no more dubious enjoyment than the Stevenson devotee lingering over the last pages of "St Ives."† Unhappily the chill of future privation strikes us even at the thirtieth chapter, and it is only by recalling long-suffered pangs anent the Edwin Drood mystery that we are decently thankful to the gifted Mr. Quiller-Couch, who has so deftly woven this unfinished tale to its completion. "The great master of us all," to use Barry's fond term, has let no pathetic shade of the approaching dark dim the enthralling brilliancy of this last of his published works; and while doubtless so careful an artist as he would have given the book many a refining touch had not his workday waned, no critic can decry or admirer lament any faltering in the old buoyancy and spirit, any laxness in the old rigid ideality of style which will always distinguish "R. L. S." from the dilettante. In plot and incident, too, the soul of genius rises triumphant, and of the hero, the Viscount de St. Ives, it is enough to say that he merits brotherhood with my lord of Ballantrae and the immortal tars of Treasure Island.

Of all enchanting realms that entice the child mind, surely Toyland must be the most irresistible; and when a pretty blue volume bedight with fascinating wooden dolls and rampant jacks-in-the-box, disporting themselves in all sorts of captivating postures, boldly announces "Adventures in Toyland"* who doubts that many pairs of bright eyes will grow big with eagerness to explore this treasure-mine from cover to cover? And such marvelous acquaintances await them in the colored plates and dainty drawings within! But—if we must be ungracious to be true—in our grown-up opinion the little ones will not miss much if they end their investigation with the pictures, for unfortunately these high-born British toys are far ahead of our New World bairnies both in their vocabulary and their range of motive and sentiment.

In the last volume of the series called Women

From Donald G. Mitchell's "American Lands and Letters." Copyright, 1897, by Charles Scribner's Sons.

WASHINGTON IRVING.

* English Lands, Letters, and Kings. The Later Georges to Victoria. By Donald G. Mitchell. 294 pp. $1.50.—† St. Ives. Being the Adventures of a French Prisoner in England. By Robert Louis Stevenson. 438 pp. $1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

* Adventures in Toyland. By Edith King Hall. Illustrated by Alice B. Woodward. 152 pp. $2.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

of Colonial and Revolutionary Times* the gentle yet distinguished career of Dame Catherine Schuyler, first introduced as "sweet Kitty V. R.," is made the central picture round which to group many representative scenes from our colonial history at the vital period of the two great wars and many quaint little *genre* studies of the romantic life in the old Dutch manor-houses of Albany and New York. The author, Mary Gay Humphreys, wields a graceful pen in such narration and has scored a marked success in her attempt to implant new seeds of interest in the well-worked field of our national beginnings.

Since Mrs. Burnett first won our hearts with her almost inspired creation of little Cedric Errol she has been given an undisputed place as a classic in child literature, and Messrs. Scribner have shown a keen sense of appropriateness in the superb binding in which they now present five volumes† of this charming author's distinctively juvenile tales. The ornate designs and harmonious color scheme that beautify the exterior of these volumes permit no adequate description, but it can be vouched that no handsomer and at the same time more meritorious set of children's stories can be found in all the book mart to-day.

Dean Farrar has enjoyed the acquaintance of many illustrious people, both in America and in his own country, and in a volume entitled "Men I Have Known"‡ he has written of these friends and friendships. There are more than fifty of them, among whom are Lord Tennyson, Matthew Arnold, Dean Stanley, Darwin, Tyndall, Huxley, Lowell, Whittier, Holmes, Phillips Brooks, Cardinal Newman, Dean Johnson, the Lyttons, Dickens, Carlyle, and other poets, scientists, divines, and literary contemporaries. The author has employed a bright, dignified style in giving his readers entertaining anecdotes, bright conversations, and interesting incidents, by which he has shown himself a close observer and an able judge of men. The volume is in no way a formal biography but it contains many facts relative to the lives of these men valuable to the student of literature. The illustrations include facsimile letters and portraits.

From Dean Farrar's "Men I Have Known." Copyright, 1897, by Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

DEAN FARRAR.

What crime did Sylvestre Bonnard commit is the question one repeatedly asks as he reads Anatole France's story "The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard."* No answer is obtained until the end of the story is almost reached. Then the sympathy is all with the criminal, a simple-hearted, learned old man who is incapable of any misdemeanor, unless, as in this case, it is committed unwittingly, and for the purpose of securing the happiness of a poor orphan. The plot of the story is simple, there is very little action, and the minor characters as well as the principal ones are well drawn. Brilliant and artistic covers of purple and gold encase this little story.

A volume substantially and attractively bound contains the poems of Matthew Arnold.† These compositions are characterized by a stateliness and dignity of expression which contributes largely to perfection in the form of Arnold's poems. However, they express a tenderness and depth of feeling which do not fail to reach the responsive heart of the reader. The present volume is a complete

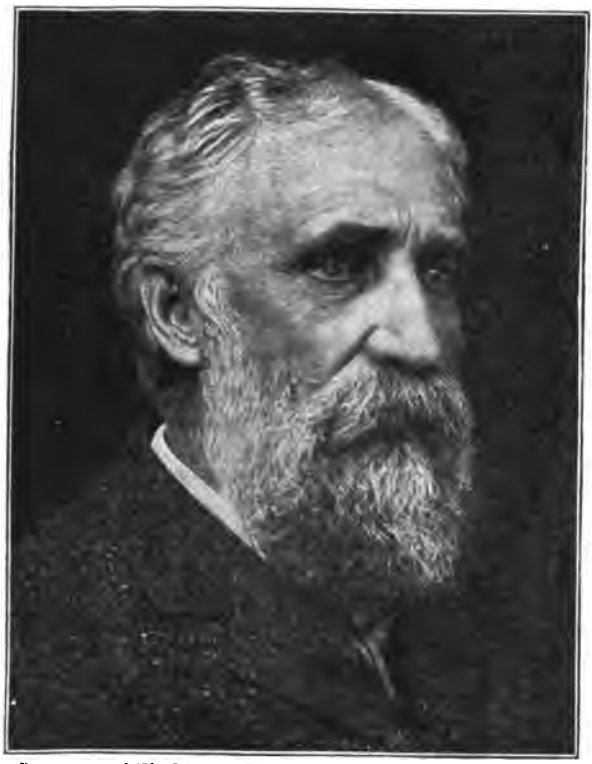
* Women of Colonial and Revolutionary Times. Catherine Schuyler. By Mary Gay Humphreys. With portrait. 251 pp. $1.25.—† Little Lord Fauntleroy; Piccino and Other Child Stories; Sara Crewe, Little Saint Elizabeth, and Other Stories; Two Little Pilgrims' Progress; Giovanni and the Other Children. By Frances Hodgson Burnett. Five vols. 12mo. Each $1.25. Per set, $6.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ Men I Have Known. By the Very Rev. Frederick W. Farrar, D. D. 292 pp. $2.75. Boston and New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

* The Crime of Sylvestre Bonnard. By Anatole France. Translated into English by Arabella Ward. 245 pp. $1.00. —† The Poetical Works of Matthew Arnold. Complete Edition. 529 pp. $1.50. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

edition and contains a biographical sketch of the poet and valuable notes on the poems.

Four small volumes representative of the Charles Dudley Warner Library have been issued as "The Warner Classics."* They contain literary and critical studies in essay form reprinted from those prepared especially for this famous library. The subjects treated in these souvenir volumes are the great philosophers, novelists, poets, and historians, about whom some of the world's ablest scholars have written in a very clever way. Each of the studies is especially valuable because it expresses the opinions of a thinker who has made a special study of his subject, and in several cases the writer was a friend of the person about whom he has written. Professor Waldstein, a personal friend of George Eliot, has written an entertaining essay on her life and works. Leslie Stephen, who writes about Carlyle, was an acquaintance of the brilliant essayist. Gibbon is the subject of Lecky's essay and Charles Dudley Warner tells us about Byron. The four volumes contain fourteen delightful essays which will tend to arouse an interest in classic literature. Engravings and half-tone portraits give an idea of the personal appearance of both the writers and the subjects of the essays. The volumes are small, and they are handsomely bound in red.



By courtesy of *The Literary Digest.*

CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER.

The interest of the nineteenth century student of literature in the Arthurian cycle may be responsible for the publication of "King Arthur and the Table Round,"* but, whatever is the cause of its issue, we are glad to obtain it, not merely because it is a fine representative of book-making but because of its literary value. The introductory chapters, in which are considered some debatable questions, relate to the history of the Arthurian romance. In the first of these chapters it is asserted that the romance as now known is a literary production for which "neither history nor tradition is primarily responsible." It is also claimed that in outline, style, and in general conception "the Arthurian romance is a French construction," the character of its present form being due largely to the influence of Crestien of Troyes, a French poet of the twelfth century. A chapter on the sources of the Arthurian tales leads to the conclusion that the greater portion of the material composing the romances now extant was not derived from Britain. About the middle of the twelfth century through the influence of the court minstrels "adventurous and sentimental poetry" of supposedly British origin became popular, and French authors, to make a story "fashionably British," frequently inserted names whose form and sound indicated a foreign origin. The writer further remarks that little of the Arthurian verse of the last half of the twelfth century remains except the work of Crestien and his followers and "it is chiefly from the romances of Crestien himself that his sources must be conjectured." Short essays on Crestien and his literary work, the prose romances evolved from the Arthurian verse and Tennyson's "Idylls of the King" complete an introduction which is written in simple yet forceful and convincing language. Three of the tales, "Erec and Enide," "Alexander and Soredamor," and "The Knight of the Lion" are included in the first volume. The text of the second volume comprises the remaining seven tales and notes explain-

*The Warner Classics. Selected from the Introductory Studies included in Charles Dudley Warner's Library of the World's Best Literature. Four vols. Sent to any address, postage prepaid, for $1.00. New York: Harper's Weekly Club.

*King Arthur and the Table Round. Tales chiefly after the old French of Crestien of Troyes, with an Account of Arthurian Romance, and Notes by William Wells Newell. Two vols. 290 + 268 pp. Boston and New York: Houghton, Mifflin and Company.

ing omissions and other matters of interest relating to the stories, which, we are told, are from the old French of Crestien of Troyes, five of them reproducing as closely as possible the ideas and language of the original, and the other five being but outlines of the original recitals.

A charming collection of holiday souvenirs and Christmas greetings are annually issued by L. Prang and Company* of Boston. This year they are prepared to supply the public with an unusually large variety of novelties, which in daintiness and artistic designs have never been surpassed. Garlands of pansies, whole handfuls of violets, stately roses, yellow-eyed daisies, the modest little forget-me-not, and other floral friends have been wrought with soft, delicate colors into graceful designs for Christmas cards, booklets, and calendars. Fairy-like forms, portraits of musical and literary artists, scenes from Longfellow's famous idyl, with pictures of the characters he has immortalized, are also among the ornamentations which grace the calendar pages. Exquisite verses and charming little poems are brought into these works of art, which are silently educating the people to a love and appreciation of the beautiful.

It was a delightful summer and one full of happy experiences that three young ladies of New England spent in the Scandinavian peninsula.† They visited a sister of two of the girls, who lived in the country two miles from Christiania. From there they made short trips to noted places and before returning to America they sailed around the coast of Norway, crossing the arctic circle to see the midnight sun. They were unusually observant and careful to record in notebooks the daily happenings and descriptions of interesting places, people, and customs. The slender thread of romance running through the recital makes it doubly attractive. Many of the scenes admired by the girls the artist has reproduced for the benefit of the reader.

From Laura D. Nichols' "A Norway Summer." Copyright, 1897, by Roberts Brothers.

OLD BORGUND CHURCH.

More than forty years Madame Mathilde Marchesi has spent in the musical profession in which she has won an enviable reputation, but not without hard labor. In the story of her life as told by herself we learn that when she was about seventeen years of age her father lost his fortune and she as well as her sister was obliged to seek a position as governess. Her sister, recognizing her superior musical talent, offered to pay for her music lessons, and she entered upon her studies with the best instructors. From that time her life was devoted to music. Her memoirs* tell in a charming way of experiences, pleasant and disagreeable, of defeats and successes, of her friends among celebrated musicians, and of her many music pupils. She has also expressed in a general way throughout the narrative her opinion on certain principles which govern the art of singing. It is a most interesting book and one especially valuable to students of voice.

According to the author's own words the story of Diomed's† life and travels is intended for those "who are too old to shoot, or who can no longer steal time for sport, and have to do their shooting

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† A Norway Summer. By Laura D. Nichols. 178 pp. $1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

* Marchesi and Music. By Mathilde Marchesi. With an introduction by Massenet. Illustrated. 315 pp. New York: Harper & Brothers.

† Diomed. The Life, Travels, and Observations of a Dog. By John Sergeant Wise. Illustrated by J. Linton Chapman. 330 pp. Boston and New York: Lamson, Wolffe and Company.

in their heads nowadays." Diomed is a remarkably intelligent dog, trained for hunting, and he is made the *raconteur* of his own experiences, diversifying the recital by observations of an interesting nature. The sportsman surely will enjoy a season's hunt with Diomed in the mountains of Virginia, on the prairies of the West, in the border territory of Mexico, and in the pines of Florida. The story will be no less appreciated by the young people who are fond of the gun and the dog. The book is amply illustrated by beautiful pictures and in its general make-up it is an admirable representative of the book-maker's art.

A volume of which Lew Wallace is the author contains two poems. The first is "The Wooing of Malkatoon,"* a romantic story of love in which a noble youth of the Orient figures as the hero. The second part of the volume is a drama, "Commodus," founded on a story told by Roman historians. It is the story of Maternus, who, according to one version, was a slave liberated from bondage by his own efforts. He gathered about himself a large band of robbers who attacked fortified cities. Commodus, the emperor, sent imperial troops to rid the country of their presence. Maternus by a remarkable stratagem circumvented them and reaching Rome during a festal season attempted to assassinate the emperor. This story is full of dramatic possibilities and the author has made the most of them, at the same time portraying personages of historical renown in their true light. The illustrations are the work of F. V. Du Mond and J. R. Weguelin.

A volume scarcely to be excelled in sumptuousness of general make-up is one containing products of Du Maurier's pen entitled "A Legend of Camelot."* The title, printed in large rubricated letters, is one of the first characteristics to attract the eye. On every page of the volume there are rubrications. Sometimes the red appears only in the initial letter or in the border lines of a picture, or, as in one section, in the last words of every stanza of poetry, the initial letter, and the line between the columns; but the effect of the whole is bright and artistic. The publisher has used an excellent quality of heavy paper upon which to display these illuminations and the text has been printed in very clear though not very large type. The contents of the volume consists of poems, "Vers Nonsensiques," short stories, and pictures which, with one exception, first appeared in *Punch*. Every feature of the pictures, many of which cover a whole page, is distinctly brought out, and they are representative of Du Maurier's talent as an artist.

From Lew Wallace's "The Wooing of Malkatoon." Copyright, 1897, by Harper and Brothers.

THE SINGING BACCHANTES.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of fall and winter literature see pages 197–240 of the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

* The Wooing of Malkatoon: Commodus. Two poems by Lew Wallace. Illustrated by F. V. Du Mond and J. R. Weguelin. 168 pp. New York: Harper and Brothers.

* A Legend of Camelot, Pictures and Poems, etc. By George Du Maurier. 95 pp. New York: Harper and Brothers.

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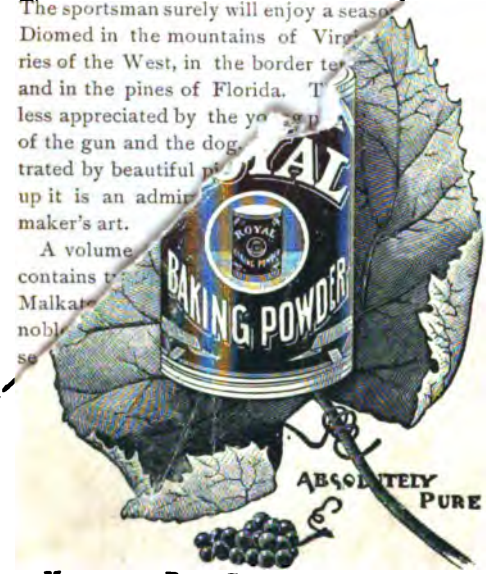

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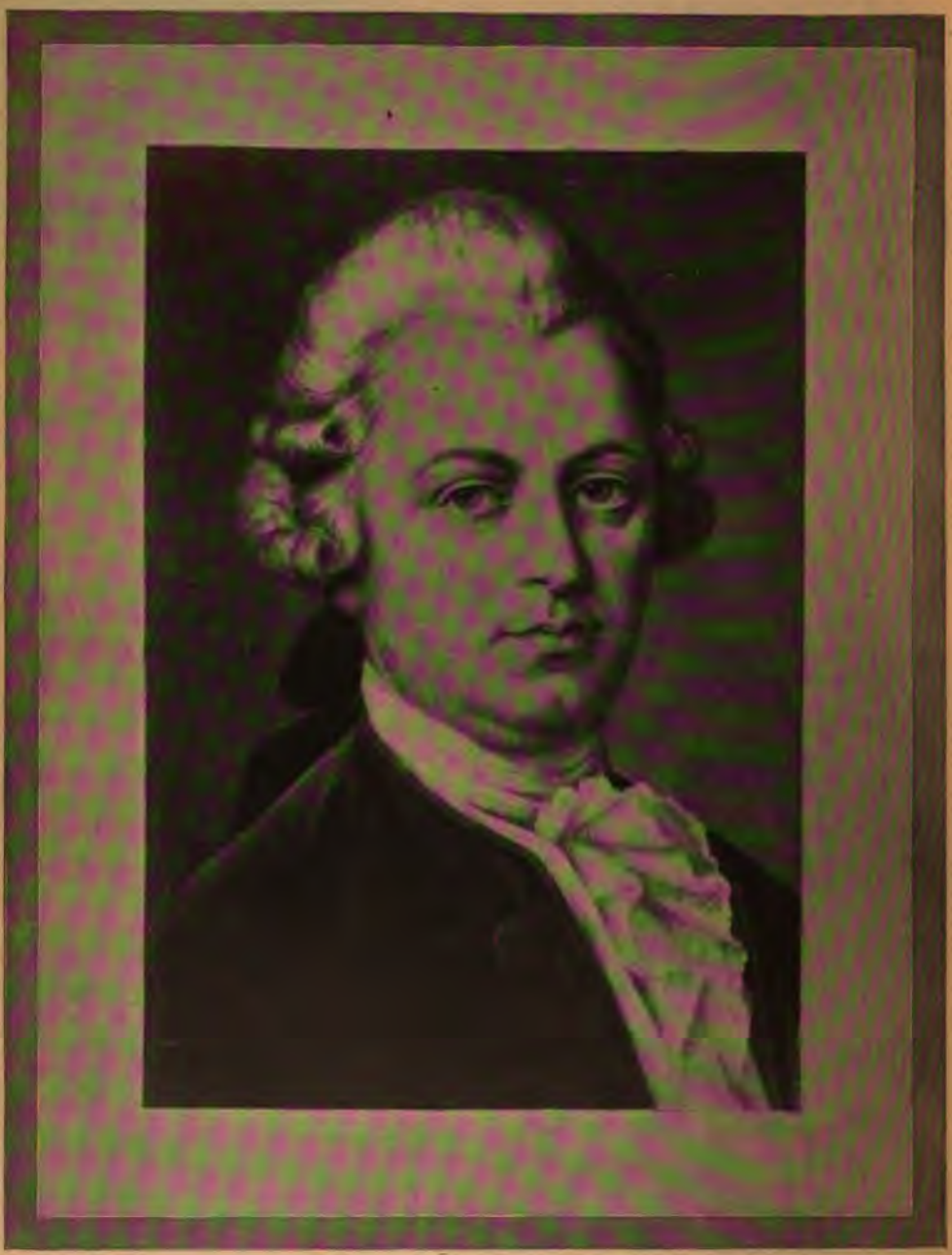

LESSING.

See page 378.

THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

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THE CITY OF BERLIN.*

BY EMILY M. BURBANK.

THE REICHSTAG BUILDING.

IF one is making a tour of the continental capitals it is wise to see Berlin first, for, as a city, she lacks that ancient, well-seasoned look one is in the habit of mentally associating with the cities of the Old World. In appearance Berlin is decidedly new. Her early history is very modest compared with that of Rome, Paris, or Vienna, and consequently she is poor in souvenirs. For this reason new or modern Berlin has quite overshadowed the old.

Berlin of to-day, the capital of the German Empire, is the third city of Europe, with a population of nearly 1,600,000; it is the chief manufacturing and industrial center of the Continent, and as an example of good municipal government the most perfect in the world.

Of the twenty wards or districts constituting Berlin, two lying in the heart of the city, Alt Berlin and Alt Kölln, serve as the sole reminders of the fact that Berlin was once a double city, Berlin-Kölln. Kölln is first mentioned in 1238. Six years later

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

THE GOETHE MEMORIAL STATUE.

we hear of Berlin. The latter rapidly outstripped the former in importance, so that in 1307 the two were united under the one name of Berlin.

Modern Berlin dates from 1861, the year of William I.'s accession to the throne of Prussia. It was after the victories of '64, '66, '70, and '71 that Berlin was made the capital of the German Empire; her remarkable municipal progress dates from this event.

On account of her marvelously rapid growth since 1861 she is often compared to Chicago. Unlike that of Chicago, however, the new growth of Berlin has deep roots; it is a virgin forest in which some veteran trees remain, while Chicago is a nursery of fruit trees "set out."

Before referring to the results achieved by the municipal governors of Berlin let us make the acquaintance of this body. As American citizens it is well worth our while.

Mr. Albert Shaw has compared the governmental structure of German cities in general, and of Berlin in particular, with that of a railway corporation, the share-holders of the road representing the voters of Berlin, the board of directors the municipal council, the general superintendent the chief burgomaster or mayor, and the general officers at the heads of departments the magistrates.

The municipal government of Berlin differs from that of American cities in that it is solid and capable—solid, because there is never a general change of administration, the burgomaster and his assistants being elected for a long term, practically for life, since re-election is almost a certainty and the three groups into which the electoral districts are divided elect the councilors in turn once in two years; capable, because the burgomaster, his substitute, and half the magistrates are experts in the general art of municipal government, having made records in the civil service of other cities or in the Royal Prussian service, and the councilors are frequently men eminent in science, economics, and various other branches of learning. One result of the Berlin system is that it is possible for the municipal government not only to make plans but to carry them out.

Among the first things which impress a stranger in Berlin are the perfect repair and scrupulous neatness of the city. Formerly the streets were paved with stone blocks, but since the introduction of asphalt, more than twenty years ago, its use has become more general each year. Since the streets have been smoothly paved, street cleaning has been carried on after the most advanced methods. The main thoroughfares are scrubbed, as well as swept, once each

THE HOHENZOLLERN PRINCES AND THEIR TINY SISTER, IN 1893.

day. In addition to this, detachments are constantly at work. The streets are saved the wear and tear of the heaviest traffic by the convenient waterways for the transference of freight. The river Spree has been dredged, enclosed between stone walls, and quays built along its banks. Connected with the Spree is a series of canals, the banks of which are kept in perfect order. Spanned by fine modern bridges of stone and steel, the canals add greatly to the beauty of Berlin. Means of transportation are numerous: besides the street-railways, horse and electric, and municipal railroads (*Stadtbahn* and *Ringbahn*), there are the cabs. From the way these last are patronized one concludes, and rightly, that the rates are moderate.

The parks in all parts of the city and the great spreading trees which line the canal banks (*Ufers*) and many of the streets go far toward doing away with that sterile look so depressing in great cities. The largest of the parks in Berlin is the Thjergarten, formerly the game preserve of the royal family. It occupies four hundred acres in the very heart of the city. While the drives, bridle-paths, and foot-paths are perfectly kept, the forest is preserved in as natural a state as possible, with the underbrush in a wild tangle. This zoological garden is a favorite resort. Besides an ex-

PALACE OF EMPEROR WILLIAM I.

cellent collection of animals, in summer one usually finds here, after 4 p. m., good music, furnished by two of Berlin's best bands.

Unter den Linden, the Champs-Elysées[1] of Berlin, is the principal street, in the sense that it is the pivot upon which the life of the city revolves. It takes its name from the four rows of linden trees describing its length. This avenue was originally laid out by the Great Kurfurst,[2] in the seventeenth century, through the forest then stretching almost to the Spree. The south side of the Linden is the most characteristic and the favorite promenade. At the eastern extremity is the royal palace—the Schloss—the oldest part of which was built in the fourteenth century. Next to it is the palace of the Kaiserin Friedrich, the mother of the present emperor. Across the Linden is the royal armory; west of the Kaiserin Friedrich's palace is the royal opera-house, Berlin's earliest classic building, erected by Frederick the Great in 1743, and across the Opera-House Square the palace of Emperor William I., *der alte Kaiser*, as the Germans say. The university on the north side of the Linden, guarded by Alexander and William von Humboldt in bronze, was once a palace, built by Frederick the Great. Next to the university is the royal academy.

The famous Café Bauer occupies the southeast corner of the Linden and Friedrich Strasse. The Berlin *café* is an importation from Vienna. Here, for the price of a cup of coffee or a glass of beer, one may claim a seat at one of the tables for as long as desired, and have the journals of the world furnished to read. The *cafés* are largely patronized by the masses, with the result that home life is to a great extent done away with, as in Vienna. Upon investigation one finds that the Austrian is not the only nation provided with its own particular resort of this kind. In Berlin there are French, Hungarian, Italian, Greek, Spanish, Egyptian, and Dutch wine rooms. One even finds the American "bar." Russian tea rooms have been attempted, but with no success.

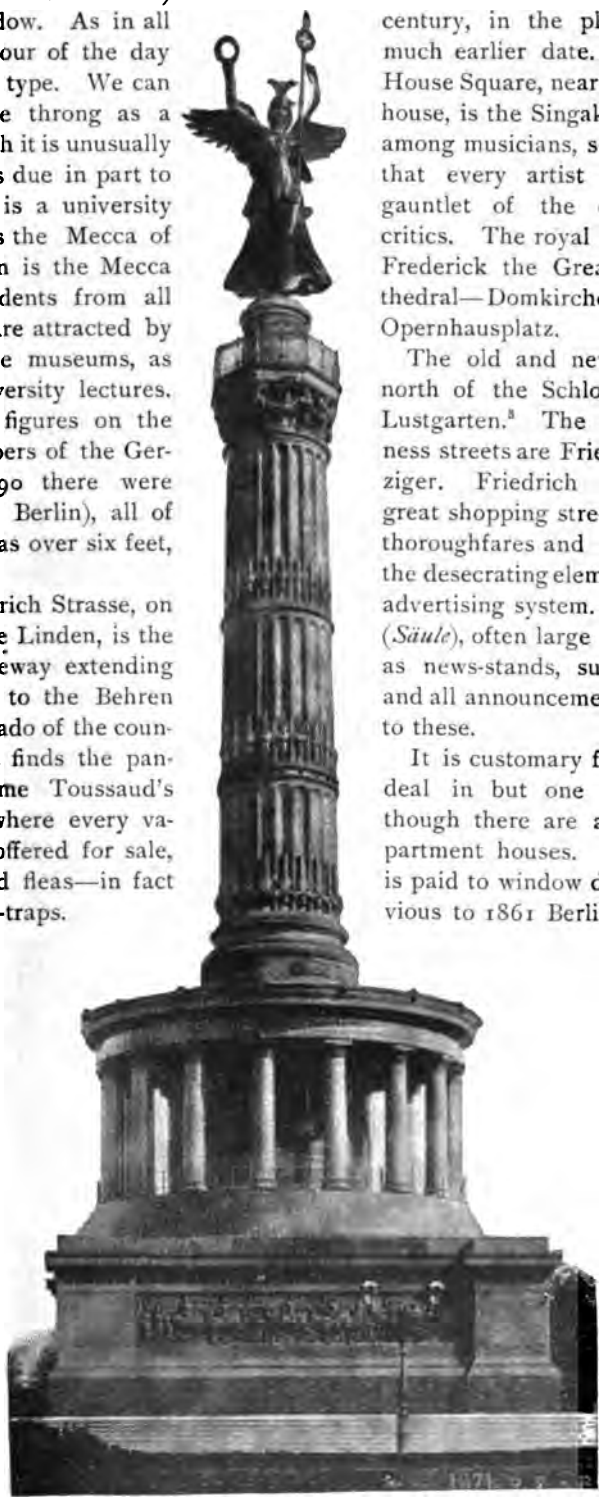
VIEW OF THE ROYAL PALACE.

If you would study the various types to be seen on the Berlin streets, take a cup of coffee at Krausler's (southwest corner of

the Linden and Friedrich Strasse) and sit by the window. As in all great cities, each hour of the day has its own special type. We can merely refer to the throng as a whole here. As such it is unusually interesting, which is due in part to the fact that Berlin is a university seat. As Vienna is the Mecca of musicians, so Berlin is the Mecca of scientists. Students from all parts of the world are attracted by the library and fine museums, as well as by the university lectures. The most striking figures on the street are the members of the German army (in 1890 there were twenty thousand in Berlin), all of whom impress one as over six feet, as indeed many are.

Just below Friedrich Strasse, on the south side of the Linden, is the Passage (a passageway extending through one block to the Behren Strasse), the El Dorado of the countryman. Here one finds the panopticon, the Madame Toussaud's of Berlin, shops where every variety of tinsel is offered for sale, exhibitors of trained fleas—in fact innumerable money-traps.

Attractive shops are found on both the north and south sides of the Linden below Friedrich Strasse. At the west end is Parisian Square (so called from the victory of 1814) with ministerial offices, the French embassy, and several other palaces. To reach the Thiergarten from the Linden one must pass through the Brandenburg Gate, erected by Frederick William II. in the eighteenth century, in the place of one of much earlier date. On the Opera-House Square, near the royal opera-house, is the Singakademie, famous among musicians, since it was here that every artist must run the gauntlet of the dreaded Berlin critics. The royal library, built by Frederick the Great, and the cathedral—Domkirche—are also on Opernhausplatz.



THE COLUMN OF VICTORY.

The old and new museums are north of the Schloss, beyond the Lustgarten.[8] The principal business streets are Friedrich and Leipziger. Friedrich Strasse is the great shopping street. The Berlin thoroughfares and boulevards lack the desecrating element of our street advertising system. Hollow pillars (*Säule*), often large enough to serve as news-stands, supply the want, and all announcements are confined to these.

It is customary for each shop to deal in but one line of goods, though there are a few large department houses. Great attention is paid to window decoration. Previous to 1861 Berlin fell behind in the different international industrial exhibitions; piqued by failure to renewed efforts, she has for a number of years distinguished herself in various trades, among them the manufacture of porcelain (royal Berlin), glass, jewelry, gold and silver wares, and enameling. It should be added

PARISIAN SQUARE AND THE BRANDENBURG GATE.

that the fame of Berlin porcelain is by no means confined to modern times.

East from Friedrich Strasse is Schiller Platz, with a statue of the poet. Here we find the court theater, the Schauspielhaus, built during the Napoleonic period.

The order preserved in the streets and other public places, on all occasions, is remarkable. It is due to the well-organized police system. The Berlin general police organization is controlled by the state, for which the citizens pay as imperial tax-payers. The force of night watchmen, however, is maintained by the city. The police authority in Berlin is extremely rigid, as it is everywhere in Germany. The entire population is enrolled upon the police register, and the comings and goings of each individual are noted. Visitors in the city, whether guests of private individuals or hotel arrivals, must be reported at police headquarters.

The statistical department of the municipal government of Berlin does more exact work than that of any other city. An important result of the pains taken by this branch of the government is great sanitary reforms. With very few exceptions the whole population of Berlin is housed in tenements. According to the statistics of 1896, less than six hundred families had private houses in which no business was conducted. Including the emperor and the court, only about 2,200 households out of 367,000 had rooms on more than one floor. Most of the houses are so built that each apartment has one or two balconies, sources of great comfort to the possessors in warm weather.

As a rule the building material used in Berlin is stucco of a uniform cream color, stone being a rare luxury. The prevailing style of architecture is Renaissance; the Gothic and rococo appear, but without relieving the monotonous effect so often complained of. The new Reichstag building is the fruit of the recent German art movement.

Berlin has a wonderful water supply and sewage system. Formerly the sewage was all drained into the Spree; at present, by means of a remarkable system of irrigation, the sewage is used to fertilize large tracts of sandy, sterile soil, converting them into fertile farms, which in course of time will be a source of large income to Berlin.

Education in Berlin is compulsory between the ages of six and fourteen years.

The municipal schools are divided into common and upper, the common schools being free, while the upper schools ask a nominal fee. In the high schools for girls (*Höhere Mädchen Schulen*) young women receive an education which corresponds in a way to that received at "society" or "finishing" schools in America. In the higher burgher schools and upper modern schools (*Höhere Burger Schulen* and *Obere Real Schulen*) boys are educated for general business and the higher departments of commercial life. The *Gymnasien*[4] prepare for the university those boys wishing to have professional careers.

The municipality has a certain amount of control over the private schools also; their teachers, as well as the teachers of the public schools, are subjected to rigid examinations, while it makes sure that their pupils are properly prepared before entering the university. Formerly the education of women was entirely superficial, but since the "woman question" (*Frauen Frage*) has been raised in Germany greater educational advantages have been possible to that sex. Within two or three years the doors of the university have been opened to women, if not all the way, at least wide enough to satisfy many and lend hope to others.

Speaking of the educational institutions of Berlin recalls certain charity schools which send out bands of little black-robed boys, with leaders, to sing under the windows in the courts. The money collected in this way goes toward the support of the schools. All German children are specially drilled in choral and part singing. Much attention is given to religious instruction in the schools, provision being made for Catholics and Jews as well as Lutherans. According to law, all except Jewish children are confirmed before they receive their school certificates, at the age of fourteen.

A BERLIN CAB DRIVER.

SCHOOL CHILDREN SINGING UNDER THE WINDOWS.

All Berlin, including royalty, goes into the streets and parks afternoons for air and exercise. One often meets the emperor and empress on horseback. The emperor, with his adjutants, rides from the Schloss, down the Linden, through the Thiergarten, to the Bellevue Schloss, where the empress joins him. By so doing Her Majesty avoids the crowded thoroughfare. The informality of the members of the royal family when among themselves is charming. Who thinks of an empress taking her six young sons to feed the animals at the Zoo? Yet this empress does that very thing,

and seems to enjoy it when they excitedly cling to her skirts.

The city of Berlin makes special provision for the amusement of old and young. In all of the parks certain plots of ground are set apart for the children, with an immense pile of sand in which they may dig. A charming feature of German life is the custom for whole families to join in the same amusement. In summer one often sees, in the parks or beer gardens, three generations seated at one table, enjoying the music while taking their coffee or beer, the women always knitting or sewing, the men smoking. In winter the Philharmonic concerts present the same picture.

Skating is a favorite sport, and much pains is taken to make the ice courses attractive; flags, Japanese lanterns, and a band of music enliven the scene, made strikingly effective by the officers' uniforms and the fur-trimmed costumes of the young women.

Among the popular forms of amusement in Berlin dancing should be mentioned, for while this city is not so intimately associated with Terpsichore as Vienna, yet every class indulges in balls.

At present all branches of art in Berlin show the effect of the wave of realism which has been felt all over the civilized world within the past eight or ten years. If one goes to the spring exhibition of paintings, it is reflected from every side. At the theater are the plays of Ibsen, Hauptmann, and Sudermann, and on the lyric stage the operas of Mascagni[5] and Leoncavello. Musically,

THE BERLIN ADVERTISING "SAUL."

Berlin is interesting, her opera ranking with that of the other great continental capitals. While the craving of the public for the modern school is pronounced, this element by no means overshadows the Wagner representations. In Berlin, as in all German cities, the influence of this composer predominates.

Covering an area of twenty-five square miles, with a population of about 1,600,000, a model municipal government, fine terminal arrangements, immense power in the world of commerce and finance, a great university, pulses throbbing with young blood, hopes instead of memories, it would seem that, as the Germans say, Berlin is "the city of the future."

SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN COLONIES.

BY ALICE MORSE EARLE.

WE have still in the remote western and southern settlements of the United States, and in the mountain districts, some very plainly built and furnished schoolhouses, but these barren buildings are a great advance on those of the first American colonists. These were built of rough logs, not well laid together, with a great clay and stone chimney at one end; there were few windows, for glass was costly, very few tables or desks, a rough wood or even earthen floor, few books, no blackboards, no maps, none of the modern school conveniences.

Let us take the school at Roxbury, Mass., as an example. The colonists had had a

log schoolhouse, and in 1652 they made a contract for what was really a very good school building for that day. It was to have "convenient benches with forms, with tables for the scholars, a convenient seat for the schoolmaster, a desk to put the dictionary on, and shelves to lay up books on." This schoolhouse did not receive as good treatment as it deserved, for the schoolmaster wrote of it thirty years later:

Of inconveniences I shall mention no other but the confused and shattered posture that it is in, not fitting for to reside in, the glass broken, and thereupon very raw and cold; the floor very much broken and torn up to kindle fires, the hearth spoiled, the seats some burned and the others out of kilter, that one had well-nigh as good keep school in a hog stye as in it.

Such conditions were far from unusual. The logs for the great fireplace, furnished by the parents of the scholars, were a part of the school expenses; and in many a school when a parent was tardy in the delivery of his winter's load of wood the child suffered by banishment to the farthest and coldest corner of the schoolroom.

The teacher's pay was in any of the inconvenient and uncertain exchanges of the day: wampum, beaver skins, Indian corn, wheat, peas, beans, or any country product known as truck. Whale-oil and fish were paid to the teachers on Cape Cod. It is told of a Salem school that one scholar was always placed in the window to study and also to hail occasional passers-by and endeavor to sell to them the accumulation of vegetables, etc., which had been paid to the teacher.

So determined was Massachusetts to have schools that in 1636, only six years after the settlement of Boston, the General Court gave over half the annual income of the entire colony to establish the school which two years later became Harvard College. This event should be remembered; it is distinguished in history as the first instance where any body of people ever gave through its representatives its own money to found a place of education. By a law of Massachusetts passed in 1647 it was ordered that every town of fifty families should provide a school where children could be taught to read and write, while every town of one hundred householders was required to have a grammar school, which was really a Latin school.

These schools were called free, but were free only to poor children; all others paid. It was not until about the time of the Revolution that the modern signification of the word free—a school paid for entirely by town taxes, and free to all—could be applied to the public schools in Massachusetts, except the Boston schools. New York had no free schools till fifty years ago. Pennsylvania had one, the Penn Charter School. The early schools in Connecticut were public but not free.

In Virginia there were few schools of any kind for over a century; Governor Berkeley wrote to England in 1670:

I thank God there are in Virginia no free schools nor printing, and I hope we shall not have, for learning hath brought disobedience and heresy and sects into the world.

A far greater barrier to the establishment of schools in Virginia was the fact given in an "advisive narrative" sent to the Bishop of London, saying:

This lack of schools is a consequent of their scattered planting. It renders a very numerous generation of Christian's Children born in Virginia, who naturally are of beautiful and comely Persons, and generally of more ingenious Spirits than those in England, unserviceable for any great Employment in Church or State.

Though there was little school life in Virginia, there was constantly going on and developing a substitute for book learning, which was thus expressed by Patrick Henry in his drawling dialect: "Naiteral pairts is better than all the book larnin' on the yearth"—his pronunciation is thus given by Governor Page. When the War of the Revolution came to show what stuff American men were made of, "naiteral pairts" brought forth in Virginia the best orators, statesmen, and generals in the country.

Some of the contracts under which teachers were hired still exist. One for the Dutch teacher at Flatbush, L. I., in 1682 is very full in detail, and we learn much of the old-time school from it. A bell was always rung to call the scholars together. The

school began at eight o'clock in the morning, closed for a recess at eleven, opened again at one, and closed at four. The school was opened by some child reading the morning prayer from the catechism, another prayer closed the school at eleven; the afternoon session began with prayer and closed with evening prayer. On Wednesdays and Saturdays the children were taught the questions and answers in the catechism and the common prayers. This would make the school appear to us more like a Sunday-school than a day-school.

The master was paid for "a speller or reader" three guilders a quarter, for "a writer" four guilders. A guilder was forty cents. He was usually paid in wheat or corn. The Dutch schoolmaster had many other duties to perform besides teaching the children. He had to ring the church bell on Sunday, read the Bible at service in church, and lead in the singing; sometimes he had to read the sermon. He had to provide water for baptisms, bread and wine for communion, and in fact perform all the duties now done by a sexton, including sweeping out the church. He often had to deliver invitations to funerals, and carry messages for the minister. Sometimes he dug the graves, and often he visited and comforted the sick. All this, with the long school sessions, must have kept him busy.

In glancing over many school contracts it will be noted that in a majority of cases the teacher is specified as a writing-master. And without doubt the chief requisite of a satisfactory teacher in colonial days was that he should be a good penman and a good teacher of penmanship. It may be permitted at the end of the nineteenth century to deplore the passing of the supremacy of the writing-master, not only on account of the consequent lowering of the standard of penmanship but also on account of the pitiable and unmistakable infirmity of the spelling of the school attendant of to-day as compared with one thirty, fifty, or seventy-five years ago. It is certain that the majority of persons learn to spell not through oral assistance but by vision; or, as is frequently said, they know when a word is spelled right by the way it looks when written. After the crystallization of orthography afforded by the spelling-books of Noah Webster, with the unremitting assistance of the universal writing-school, nearly all persons spelled well. Such is not the case with the present generation of school attendants.

Less stress is now laid, too, on elegance of penmanship. Our grandfathers and great-grandfathers all wrote well. In the hundreds of letters over a century old which I have seen, an ill-written letter is an exception, almost an anomaly. School children wrote beautifully shaped, well-rounded, clear, and uniform hands. Though spelling was wildly varied in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, I have never read any criticism of school teachers by either parents or town officers on that account. But woe betide the teacher who did not write well! His career was short. Writing teachers were universally honored in every community. Here is the funeral notice of a Boston master who died January 30, 1769:

Last Friday morning died Mr. Abiah Holbrook in the 51st year of his age. Master of the South Writing School in this Town. He was looked upon by the best Judges as the Greatest Master of the Pen we ever had among us, of which he has left a most beautiful Demonstration. He was indefatigable in his Labours, successful in his Instructions, an Honour to the Town, and, to crown all, an Ornament to the Religion of Jesus.

This "beautiful Demonstration" of his penmanship was a most intricate piece of what was known as fine knotting, or knot work. It was "written in all the known hands of Great Britain." It was valued at £100 and was bequeathed to Harvard College, unless his wife preferred to sell it to John Hancock, who had been one of his scholars—and, as we know from his signature of the Declaration of Independence, a creditable one. This work had occupied every moment of what Abiah Holbrook called his "spare time" for seven years, and as in the year 1745 he had two hundred and twenty scholars in one school his spare time must have been short. He and other writing masters of the Holbrook family left behind them still nobler "demonstrations"

in the handwriting of their scholars, Boston patriots, merchants, clergy, and statesmen, whose elegant penmanship really formed a distinct style known and taught as "Boston Style of Writing."

In olden times only one kind of pen was used—that cut from a goose-quill with the feathers left on the handle. The selection and manufacture of these goose-quill pens was a matter of considerable care in the beginning, and of constant watchfulness and "mending" till the pen was worn out. One of the indispensable qualities of a colonial schoolmaster was that he be a good pen-maker and pen-mender.

Ink was not bought in convenient liquid form as at present; each family, each person, was an ink manufacturer for his own individual consumption. The favorite method of ink-making was through the purchase and dissolving of ink-powder. In remote districts of Vermont, Maine, and Massachusetts, home-made ink, feeble and pale, was made by steeping the bark of swamp maple in water, boiling the decoction till thick, and diluting it with copperas.

Next to penmanship, the colonial school and schoolmaster took firm stand on "cypher-ing." "The Bible and figgers is what I want my boys to know," said one old farmer. I have examined with care a Wingate's Arithmetic which was used for over a century in the Winslow family in Massachusetts. The first edition was printed in 1620. It is certainly bewildering to a modern reader. "Pythagoras his Table," is, of course, our multiplication table. Then comes "The Rule of Three," "The Double Golden Rule," "The Rule of Fellowship," "The Rule of False,"[1] etc., etc., ending with "a collection of pleasant and polite Questions to exercise all the parts of Vulgar Arithmetick."

Wingate's Arithmetic and Hodder's Arithmetic were succeeded by Pike's Arithmetic. This had three hundred and sixty-three rules to be committed to memory—and not an explanation was given of one of them! It is the most barren school-book I have ever read. These printed arithmetics were not in common use. Nearly all teachers had manuscript "sum-books," from which the scholars copied page after page of "sums," too often without any explanation of the process, though there were also many and long rules, which helped the penmanship if they did not the mathematics.

The first book from which the children of the early colonists learned to read and spell was not a book at all in our sense of the word. It was a horn-book. A thin piece of wood, usually about four or five inches long and two or three wide, had a sheet of paper fastened on it by a strip of narrow brass and tacks. The paper was printed with the alphabet and a few simple syllables and the Lord's Prayer. This printed page was covered with a piece of translucent horn also held in place by the brass band and tacks. Through the horn the scholar could read the printed letters. The horn-book had a handle and was attached to the belt of the student by a string.

The horn-book was succeeded by the New England Primer, which was used till this century. Scarcely better printed than the horn-book, its religious teachings and its universal use have given it the title of "The Little Bible of New England." It is estimated that over three million copies of it have been printed. It contained the famous "Shorter Catechism" and all its rimes and illustrations were full of biblical allusions.

The scholar who advanced beyond the horn-book, primer, catechism, and Bible was thrust at once into the Latin grammar. English grammar was but little studied.

Rev. George Channing wrote an account of the school of his youth, which he attended just after the Revolution. Girls and boys attended together the primary school, and sat on seats made of round blocks of wood of various heights, which were furnished by the parents. Children bowed and kissed the teacher's hand on leaving the room. The teaching of spelling was peculiar. It was the last lesson of the day. The master gave out a long word, say *multiplication*, with a blow of his strap on the desk as a signal for all to start together, and in chorus the whole class spelled out the word in syllables. The teacher's ear was so trained and acute that he at once detected any mis-

spelling. If this happened he demanded the name of the scholar who made the mistake. If there was any hesitancy or refusal in acknowledgment he kept the whole class until, by repeated trials of long words, accuracy was obtained. The roar of the many voices of the large school, all pitched in different keys, could be heard, on summer days, for a long distance.

Dilworth's Speller was one of the first used, and the spelling in it varied much from that of the "British Instructor." Fisher's "Young Man's Companion" had lessons of spelling and reading. It was printed in 1727 and was enlarged and reprinted by Benjamin Franklin in 1748. Not until the days of Noah Webster and his spelling-book and dictionary, after the Revolution, was there any decided uniformity of spelling. Professor Earle of Oxford University says the process of compelling a uniform spelling is a strife against nature. Certainly it took a long struggle against nature to make spelling uniform in America. In the same letter, men of high education would spell the same word several different ways. There was no better usage in England. The edition of Milton's "Paradise Lost" printed in 1688 shows some very grotesque spelling. Therefore it is not strange to find a New York teacher advertising to teach "writeing and spilling."

Though geography had been occasionally taught in the more thorough schools, Morse's Geography, 1790, was the first one to be popular. It was objected to by some parents on the ground that it diverted attention from "cyphering."

THE SOCIAL HABITS OF INSECTS.

BY ANNA BOTSFORD COMSTOCK.

IT is unquestionable that the word "socialist" is an epithet of reproach in the popular mind, and is associated with attempts to subvert the law and order of civilized society. Yet the student of history is bound to confess that socialism has been the product of the highest civilization. In every form it has been an attempt, however misguided, to insure the good of society at large through curtailing and regulating the rights of the individual, the underlying idea of socialism being to secure for man upon earth the equal chances for happiness which, it is believed, God in his justice grants to man in the next world. The popular disrepute of socialism is doubtless due in part to various unsuccessful experiments in communal life; but it is due also to the individualism of the human race, which rebels against any leveling tendency. We each prefer to keep our own fighting chance, however poor, to sharing the same with our fellows less fortunate in endowment and environment.

. It is strange that in the history of socialism the fact has been disregarded that, thousands of years before Saint-Simon, Fourier, Owen, and Karl Marx,[1] insects had already solved the problems of practical socialism. Surely had Solomon been as interested in social experiments as he was in industrial progress he would have said: Go to the ant, thou socialist, learn her ways of community life and be wise; for she provideth her meat in the summer and gathereth her food in the harvest, and shareth freely with her fellows the products of her labors.

The successful socialists among insects are bees, ants, and wasps, all of which belong to the order Hymenoptera. But, as if to show that the lines of social development in the insect world are founded upon fundamental law, we find another group of insect socialists, the white ants, or termites, which belong to an entirely different order. They differ as much structurally from the ants, bees, and wasps as do men from horses, and yet their social habits are much the same. And even within the Hymenoptera the social habits of bees, wasps, and ants have doubtless been developed independently.

Let us examine the claims insects have to be ranked as socialists and see if they are not well founded. The efforts of human socialists have been directed toward non-competitive division of labor, united capital, communal habitations, and amalgamation of interests. All these conditions and more are to be found in insect societies; for the social insects are uncompromising Malthusians and rigorously control the increase of population. We will discuss these claims in detail and see how they are substantiated by the facts observed in the insect world.

Division of labor is the most interesting phase of insect socialism and deserves to be considered first. Our little six-footed brethren have loosed the Gordian knot of division of labor through creating castes more immutable than those of the Brahmans; and they have solved the problems of caste by making their existence a benefit to the whole society instead of to the individuals belonging to the caste. This is brought about by making each caste represent a division of labor based upon the needs of the whole community. The castes are: queens, kings, workers, and soldiers, and a study of the functions of each is necessary in order to understand the economy of the insect commune.

The term queen is a misnomer among insects, for they have no rulers in their societies. The queen is always the mother of the colony, and the devoted attention she receives is due to the fact that without her the community would perish.

The queen has reached her highest development in the honey-bee and we will study her there. From infancy she is destined to maternity, and her life history is briefly as follows: When the workers wish to develop a queen they tear down the partitions between three adjacent cells containing eggs which would naturally develop into workers. They destroy two of the eggs, reserving the third as occupant of the large cell which they proceed to build over it. The egg hatches into a little white bee grub in no wise differing from those in the neighboring cells. But soon the process of differentiation begins, for this grub is fed upon a highly nutritious food made by the workers, called "royal jelly." Not for the delectation of the babe in the royal cell is she fed royal jelly, but because this rich diet has a marvelous effect upon her physical development, giving her great capabilities of egg-laying. For five days is she fed upon this wonderful food, and then the workers cap her cell and leave her alone to change to a pupa.

About sixteen days from the date of hatching, the queen is ready to come out of her cell; the workers know this and are ready to open the cell and help the royal lady out, now in full possession of her legs and wings. In appearance she is larger than the workers or drones—evidently a queenlier bee. Her first act, if unhindered by the workers, is her one claim to similarity to human royalty: she starts at once on a hunt for other queens in the hive; for our queen is jealous and will brook the presence of no other queen. Her sting is a noble weapon kept sacred to the slaying of her peers. She hunts for other queen cells, tears them open with great fury, and assassinates the helpless young princesses within them. But she is quite as ready for fair fight as for assassination; for when she finds another queen fully developed she will fight her until one or the other is killed. The stark bodies of fifteen unfortunate queens were found one day thrown out of one of the hives in our apiary, grim witnesses to the prowess of the royal lady in possession of the hive.

In a few days after maturity the queen takes her marriage flight in the sunshine. She does not lack for suitors, as there are always plenty of royal gentlemen of leisure developed in every colony. On her return, at the expense of her consort's life, she possesses within herself the power to fertilize at will the million eggs which she is likely to lay during the three to five years of her lifetime. As soon as she returns from her honeymoon the queen proceeds at once to business, moving around upon the comb and gluing her eggs to the bottom of the cells. When the honey season is at its height she works with great rapidity, some-

times laying eggs at the rate of six per minute, accomplishing the feat of laying over three thousand eggs per day—nearly twice her own weight. However, she is a wise queen and has an eye to the dangers of over-population. When there is much honey and great activity on the part of the workers and the swarming season is at hand she enlarges her empire rapidly; but when there is little honey she takes care that the population be limited to practical numbers. Whether she does this as the result of her own wisdom or whether she is guided by the quality of food the workers give her is a mooted point. From the point of this discussion it matters not whether it be queen or subjects that evince such foresight; the fact that interests us is that the bee-socialists do control population.

One wonderful power at least belongs to our bee queen: she has control of the sex of her offspring. When she wishes to develop male brood she lays unfertilized eggs. The eggs of a virgin queen, and also of workers, which sometimes mysteriously possess the power of egg-laying, always develop into males, or drones, as they are called. And the fertile queen simply refrains from fertilizing an egg when she wishes to produce a drone. Many a poor human queen would have led a happier life had she possessed the power of developing male progeny at will. However, the powers of maternity in the human species are limited in all ways compared with those of insects. The queen bee could never accomplish such feats of egg-laying if she were not cared for with great solicitude by the workers. Her reproductive organs are developed at the expense of the rest of her physique. Her stomach is not fitted for the processes of digestion; she is always fed upon digested food, and thus her energies are conserved for her great task.

Often in the summer or fall swarms of winged ants may be encountered by the unhappy traveler, who has much to do to keep them out of his eyes and mouth. These winged forms are the king and queen ants taking their marriage flight. As soon as this wedding tour is over they drop to the ground; the kings die soon, the queens tear off their own wings in a great hurry and, like the queen bee, go to work at once. The first eggs the queen ant lays she takes care of herself, housing and feeding the young in a true motherly way. The first brood is composed of workers, and after their maturity they take care of the nest and the young, and the energies of the queen are reserved for the production of eggs. In one particular is the queen ant more amiable than the queen bee: she suffers no throes of jealousy and dwells in peace with other queens in the nest. The worker ants evidently regulate the size of the royal family.

The kings and queens of the termites take flight at first as do the ants. The queen and king are adopted into some colony, where they are carefully cared for, a royal cell being fashioned for their use. The queen becomes greatly developed in size, until her abdomen is a great egg-sac, sometimes six or seven inches long. Of course she cannot move, but lives in imprisoned helplessness, finding her only relief in the devotion of her consort and subjects.

It is a sorry part in the larger affairs of the insect world that is played by the males, whether we call them kings or drones. Much scorn has been heaped upon drones because they are the idlers in the bee commune, but surely their lot is the least enviable of all the castes in the hive. The drone's sole *raison d'être*[3] is the fertilization of the queen; but as there are hundreds of drones to one queen, naturally there are very few that perform the office intended for them by nature. Even if one is successful he loses his life for love, while the many unsuccessful kings without kingdoms are mercilessly sentenced to death by their worker sisters as soon as the honey supply runs low. Cheshire describes the killing of drones thus:

> No sooner does income fall below expenditure than their nursing sisters turn their executioners, usually by dragging them from the hive, biting at the insertion of the wing. The drones, strong for their special work, are after all as tender as they are defenseless, and but little exposure and abstinence is required to terminate their being. So thorough is the war of extermination that no age is spared.

The question as to the economy of developing so many useless princes royal is a puzzling one, and can only be explained by the theory that natural selection has acted to preserve those colonies having many drones—another instance of the flagrant waste of individuals for the benefit of the race. Those who had the opportunity of studying the observation hive at Chautauqua last summer will remember the terrible slaughter of drones which took place. The openings in the hive being only large enough to admit the workers and therefore too small to allow the passage of the bodies of the drones, the determined workers spent several days in tearing their wretched victims limb from limb and removing them in sections. Below a small crevice at the bottom of the hive could be seen a windrow of disjointed legs and wings torn from the poor drones. The king ants die natural deaths, if death from cold and starvation may be called so; at least they are not subject to assassination as are the king bees. The king termite is a noted exception in the insect world, as he lives a long and exemplary life, sharing with his queen the attention and devotion of his subjects.

Devotion to royalty has been much misunderstood by the earlier writers. Lubbock and McCook, as well as apiarists, have shown that the devotion to the queen is a matter of business interests to the colony. Not her royal body do they revere, but her royal prerogative of motherhood. "What does" is the criterion of insect socialists; "what is" counts for nothing. Ants show a great deal of devotion to a dead queen, giving her attention for days or even weeks after her death. While the queen bee moves about freely in the hive, the queen ant has a body-guard which always accompanies her and often restricts her movements.

Bee-keepers often have occasion to introduce new queens into hives that are queenless. This is a delicate undertaking and many expedients are resorted to in order to accomplish it successfully. It is interesting to note the manner in which the bees refuse to accept a strange queen. They "ball" her, as it is called; *i. e.*, a great number of workers cluster close around her, making a compact ball about the size of an egg, and thus delicately smother her royal highness with much attention. Getting rid of unwelcome royalty by the process of smothering is not unknown in our own annals. This method is probably adopted by bees through their instinct of never inflicting wounds upon a fertile queen; it is to be noted that if a queen bee is infertile or disabled she is killed by ordinary methods and pitched out of the hive, thus showing conclusively that it is the function of royalty rather than the person that is respected.

THE GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION OF GERMANY.

BY CYRUS C. ADAMS.

GERMANY will make a great display of her products and resources at the Paris Exposition in 1900. It will be her first participation in the famous fairs to which her neighbor from time to time invites the world, and Germany, forgetting all political enmity, will join the throng of sister nations on the banks of the Seine, because in a quarter of a century she has become an industrial and commercial giant. She wants to invite comparison in France with other peoples. She wishes to proclaim her progress and preeminence in all the arts of peace. She is going to Paris to advertise Germany as a producer, a manufacturer, and a merchant.

Germany had played only a small part in the world's commerce before 1871. The dismembered empire could not keep pace with her great rivals. It was the reunion of the several states that revived the commercial spirit from the lowlands of the Baltic to the mountains of the south frontier, and the world never before saw such re-

markable development of commerce and industry, in so short a time, as Germany has shown. From an humble place she has become the second greatest trader with foreign nations. Her tonnage on the sea is now nearly double that of France, and she has taken the place of the Norwegians, a race of seafarers, as the second greatest ocean carrier.

Germany is becoming, every day, less an agricultural and more an industrial and commercial nation. She desires from other countries little except food products and the raw materials for manufactures. Her agents are scattered all over the world, establishing new markets for her goods. Her merchants and manufacturers are constantly asking the government to improve the waterways, open new canals, reduce freights on the state railroads, and do many other things that will tend to make German competition with commercial rivals more formidable. Her foreign trade is about two thirds as large as that of Great Britain and far surpasses that of any other country. Hamburg has left Liverpool behind in the volume of its trade, and only London and New York excel the greatest German port. All these results have been accomplished since the Franco-German War. They are the impressive outcome of the national aptitude for commerce and industry, with a basis of superior geographical position and vast natural resources.

It has been said that human ingenuity is largely nullifying those favorable conditions for commerce which have given this or that nation advantages over its trade rivals. This is true to a considerable extent. We may be poor in the important article of sulphur, but San Francisco can import all she wants from Sicily by way of Cape Horn, at a freightage of only $5 or $6 a ton. The people of Great Britain and Germany buy our wheat cheaper than they can raise it at home, and England turns out cheap pig iron, though she imports the ore from Sweden or Spain. The British long believed, with some reason, that their moist climate gave them a great advantage in wool spinning over the United States and other countries; but inventions for moistening the atmosphere and regulating the temperature of spinning rooms has almost wholly nullified the climatic advantage that England claimed. The fact remains, however, that all countries share these advantages, while the nations possessing the most favorable position for trade, an excellent climate, the finest systems of railroads, of navigable rivers and artificial waterways, the greatest fertility, the largest and most accessible beds of coal and iron, will always maintain their superiority in industry and commerce. Germany has come to the front rank because her natural advantages were sure to place her there as soon as her reunited people put their shoulders to the wheel.

A bird's-eye view of Germany will show what these natural advantages are. Any good topographical map of Europe depicts the great, low plain, starting from the Gulf of Biscay and bending like a bow through the western half of France, the northern half of Germany, and on, with a southerly trend, through Russia, till it is washed by the Black and Caspian Seas. In Germany it is the great German plain, the threshold to the richer regions of the South. In this plain all roads lead to Berlin. The meager soil, stimulated by careful husbandry, grows very good crops of the sugar beet, potatoes, and flax. Few areas are densely peopled, and big, sluggish rivers from the South send their waters, in almost parallel courses, to the North Sea and the Baltic. Here are the marsh lands of the Northwest, where thousands of cattle graze around the base of the Jutland peninsula that leads to Denmark. What a pregnant rôle has Jutland played in shaping the trade routes of Germany! It was this obstruction in the way of ships, now removed by the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, that for ages turned the tide of traffic from the Baltic ports of Germany to the enrichment of Hamburg and Bremen in the West. Through all the plain a network of canals unites the large rivers, so that freight from Hamburg may be transferred from ocean vessels to small boats, which will cross the river courses and carry their cargoes to all parts of North Germany,

and even into Russia, at the cheapest of rates.

Ascend the Weser or the Elbe across this plain till the hill region is entered and the Hartz Mountains come into view midway between the two rivers. Here is the most northern bulwark of the highlands that cover the rest of Germany. Ascend the Saale tributary of the Elbe to the heart of the highlands in the neighborhood of Bayreuth, to which the Wagner festivals draw so many American pilgrims. Here is the central knot of the Fichtel Mountains, from which nearly all the mountain ranges of Germany radiate, cutting up the broad table-land of South Germany into segments like those made by the spokes of a wheel. Some of these sections of the plateau are rich in agricultural resources, or abound in fine timber of great value, or have great beds of coal and iron or materials for glass and pottery-making and other minerals of commercial importance.

There is a great abundance of coal and iron ore in seven or eight districts throughout these highlands, from Saxony in the South to Westphalia in the Northwest. It was cheap coal and iron that assured the manufacturing greatness of England, and Germany's industrial prosperity is founded upon the same basis. With coal at the very door of her manufactories, Saxony is the busiest hive in Germany, the most enterprising and progressive of the German states; and the vast enterprises based upon iron and coal that are thriving in Westphalia, of which the gun-works of Krupp at Essen are the most widely known feature, are doing as much as Saxony to make the economic greatness of Germany.

But Germany would be heavily handicapped in the race if her transportation and shipping facilities were not of the best. In these respects nature and art have done wonders for her. The empire has about eighty thousand miles of excellent macadam roads. The four great rivers that flow across the northern plain rise in the southern highlands and carry great quantities of its products to the sea. River vessels, ascending the Vistula, the Oder, and the Elbe from the Baltic and North Seas, enter their deep-cut valleys in the plateau, and unload their freight well up on the table-land; while the Rhine, the great water highway of Western Europe, and the only German river that rises in the Alps, has cut a way deep and wide through the South German table-land, and is navigable from its delta channels to the Swiss Jura, almost within sight of the Middle Alps.

There are not a few rivers of secondary importance, such as the Ems, Weser, Pregel, and Niemen, which add largely to the total of transportation facilities, and many tributaries of the greater rivers are highways of trade. In the lowlands the physical feature which the Germans call "river bifurcations," natural canals uniting distinct river systems, are numerous. Some of them form good highways from one river to another, and over two thousand miles of artificial canals, most of them connecting navigable rivers, form an unrivaled network of waterways. Canals now building to connect the Danube, Oder, Moldau, and Elbe will make a continuous water highway nearly two thousand miles in length, connecting both the Baltic and the North Seas with the ports of South Russia on the Black Sea. These far distant ports are already connected with the chief ports of Holland by the Ludwig Canal, between the Rhine and the Danube.

Some economists in Germany complain that the remarkably cheap freight rates on the German water routes render the importation of foreign merchandise altogether too cheap and easy. The steel makers of Westphalia, last year, were paying only eighty-two cents a ton for hauling their product to the wharves at Antwerp, a distance of 150 miles, about one third the cost of similar freightage in England for a lesser distance. When a British committee inquired, a while ago, into the causes of German inroads into branches of commerce that England had almost monopolized, they reported, as a very important matter, that German manufacturers had the advantage of cheaper transportation to the sea. Germany leads the world to-day in the improvement of waterways. The vast sums

spent upon the improvement of a part of the Rhine channel have helped to increase freight tonnage at the river ports threefold within the past twenty years. The canalization of the Main River increased the river shipments from Frankfort from 150,000 to 1,753,799 tons in ten years. The total length of the inland waterways is now 8,700 miles. Railroad transportation for coal, ore, and finished products is also very low. The tendency all over the empire is toward state ownership of railroads; and, whatever may be urged against this idea, it is certain that the liberal policy that has constructed and developed the state railroads of Germany has vastly benefited the empire.

A British school geography, much used in England a few years ago, said that agriculture with cattle raising was the chief industry of Germany. To-day about two million more people depend for their living upon mining and the metal, textile, and other industries than upon husbandry. Thousands of women have been leaving domestic service to go into factories. Germany cannot now raise all the food she needs, but imports large quantities of breadstuffs from the United States, Argentina, and other countries, besides cotton from this country and Egypt and great amounts of other raw materials. Patriotism plays a very small part in trade, and merchants will buy where they can buy the best and cheapest. Still the German people as a whole are making every effort to reduce the imports and increase the exports of manufactures of all kinds. They are succeeding to a considerable extent. They are now sending millions of dollars' worth of their textile products to sell in the British markets. They are sending many of their machines, often little more than copies of American and British inventions, to Russia, South America, and Australia, and even to this country and England; and when Germany imports a manufactured product today it is because the article is decidedly better in quality or cheaper in price than the home-made product.

A nation usually finds its best customers at home and among the neighboring peoples; and this is the strongest point in Germany's commercial position. She touches all the great European states except Italy. The frontiers of Russia, France, Austria-Hungary, Switzerland, The Netherlands, Belgium, and Denmark march with her own. Her trade is growing with them all; she is supplying many of their wants, and her vessels and superior seaports handle, in the aggregate, a large amount of their foreign trade. Germany regards Russia as her own peculiar preserve, and she is straining every nerve to secure all the plums of trade that country has to offer. The only competitors she fears are the United States and Great Britain.

There is Russia, right at her doors, with ninety-four million people in her European domain. They have made much progress in advanced civilization. Their manufactures are multiplying, but still their needs are great. The people are poor, for serfdom was abolished only a generation ago; but the giant is beginning to waken. Railroads are building, mines are opening, silk, cotton, and flax manufactures figure impressively in the statistics of trade, and the more Russia thrives the greater becomes her need of foreign aid. Most of all she needs machinery, for her manufactures of iron and steel are in their infancy, and it will be years before her production of agricultural machinery is adequate. At a congress of Russian farmers in St. Petersburg recently it was recommended that harvesters, binders, mowers, plows, and thrashing machines be admitted to the country free of duty.

Here is a great opportunity for the United States, and to some extent we are improving it. Of the thirty-two million pounds of agricultural machinery imported into Russia in 1896, nearly one half came from Germany, over a quarter from the United States, and more than an eighth from England. Germany's particular ambition is to supply Russia with machinery, and she is now providing three fourths of the material Russia needs to develop her industries. Her agents overrun Russia, looking for trade and finding it. Wherever the agent of a

German merchant or manufacturer is seen in a foreign land, he is certain to possess a fluent knowledge of the language of the man with whom he hopes to do business. As much cannot be said of many British and American commercial agents, and this is one of the reasons why England has cause to complain of her losses and Germany's gains in the Russian market.

It is not only the vast armaments of Europe that are keeping the peace. Commerce, to-day, is one of the most potent influences in preserving the peace of Europe; and now that Germany, the great power of Central Europe, has become one of the leading commercial nations, her people crave peace, and the blessings it perpetuates, more than they ever did before. In actual touch with the frontiers of all the most thrifty and industrious peoples of Europe, Germany has far more to lose, in a business sense, by a general war than any of the other powers. What nation was so strenuous as she to prevent the war which Greece forced upon Turkey in 1897? Among the most potent reasons for her attitude were her business interests. Not many years ago all the countries on and near the lower Danube received most of their imported goods from England. To-day it is Germany and Austria that are dominating this trade. German trade with the Balkans and Turkey has increased sixfold in the past thirteen years. As a great industrial nation, as the trader who has most to lose in the European markets by war on the Continent, Germany is, and is likely to continue to be, a powerful influence in averting as long as possible a great conflagration among the powers.

Over-confidence is one of the reasons why England has been losing trade. She was serene and sure of her position even when Germany was cutting the ground from under her feet in some of her own colonies and in South America and the Orient. Germany's laurels, in industry and commerce, have not been worn so long that she forgets to be vigilant. She wonders, to-day, if she can possibly keep up the pace she has been traveling. She does not know what may be the effect of the abrogation by England of their commercial treaty. She is anxious as to the effect the Dingley tariff may have upon her trade. Germany, with her highly protected home market, regards our tariffs as an unmitigated evil. While we smile at her inconsistency, it may be well for us to engage more hotly with her in fair commercial rivalry, and win and maintain the place we should hold in the trade of the Latin-American countries, where German commerce has been making giant strides. Germany is a nation worthy of any nation's steel; for with her advantageous geographical position, her vast resources, disciplined labor, technical skill, cheap transportation, and assiduous cultivation of foreign markets she bids fair to hold her own in the face of the most intelligent competition.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

THE EVOLUTION OF A THINKER.

I thought on my ways,
And turned my feet unto thy testimonies.
—*Ps. cxix. 59.*

[*January 2.*]

THE thinker is always an interesting being; but sometimes he is a sophist, and, although interesting, he is misleading. And even when he is not a sophist he is frequently abstract, remote, vague, and therefore unprofitable. Here in the text we have a man who is a thinker and yet no sophist, no dreamer, but one who brings the full power of an inspired intelligence to bear upon the most momentous issues of life. In the evolution of this thinker, as he comes before us in the words,

I thought on my ways,
And turned my feet unto thy testimonies,

there are four things to be noted.

1. In the first place, his words are remarkable for the clear recognition which they contain of the supreme and ultimate relation of every human life. The last reference of our existence is to God. The words "my ways" and "thy testimonies" present the two terms in the great final comparison, the two persons, the finite and the infinite, who have to do with each other before all and after all. As a cathedral built in the heart of a great city rises with the other buildings round about it, keeps company with them a certain distance, and then leaves them all behind, soars away skyward, and at last, solitary and alone, looks up into the infinite spaces, so every man lives among men. He rests with them upon the same political and social foundation; he stands with them in a wide and important fellowship; he rises with them a certain way, and then he goes beyond them all, and the last look and reference of his spirit is to the Eternal. We drew our being from God, we live and move and have our being in God, and at death we breathe back our life into God's hands. The first thing in our existence is our Maker, and when we have done with all others we have still to do with him. For the clear and impressive recognition of this supreme and final relation of human life the words of the text are indeed remarkable. In the evolution of thought this thinker began at the divine beginning, and let us be thankful to him for that.

2. The words of this man are remarkable, in the second place, for the application which they reveal of an awakened intelligence to the business of living. Is it not strange that in a world where so much thinking is done, and where so many magnificent monuments have been erected to the triumph of human reason, so very little thought should be given to that which is of supreme moment—life itself? Every locomotive that leaves the station must have an engineer; that is, intelligence must be in command. Every ship that clears port must have a captain; again reason must rule.

In all the professions the cry is for more light, for larger-minded men. And no one expects success anywhere in the business of the world but in proportion as he puts his mind upon his task. Our science, our art, our philosophy, our political institutions, our industry, our history, and our entire civilization are monuments of the greatness and triumph of the human mind. Upon every hand we behold the marvels achieved by thought. Everywhere it is doing wonders, except in the evolution of character. Life is left to make way for itself, to go unshielded into the field of battle. Character, the supreme thing, is abandoned to chance; it is left to grow wild; it is given no succor, no inspiration from the power of intelligence. And one may as reasonably expect a child to play in safety upon the confines of a jungle, with the hiss of the snake and the growl of the wild beast audible from the thicket, as for a young man to hope to keep his honor, maintain his purity, and hold fast his integrity in the peril of the world without the application of Christian intelligence to the business of living.

[*January 9.*]

AND this criticism holds against men of genius as well as against ordinary men. Like others, they are good and bad from impulse, and moral judgment has had but little to do with the guidance of their lives. Take, for example, the criticism that Burns passes upon himself in his poem "A Bard's Epitaph." How much deeper, how much more severe, how much more to the point it is than the censure of any other critic!

> Is there a man whose judgment clear
> Can others teach the course to steer,
> Yet runs himself life's mad career
> Wild as the wave?
> Here pause—and through the starting tear
> Survey this grave!
>
> The poor inhabitant below
> Was quick to learn and wise to know,
> And keenly felt the friendly glow
> And softer flame;
> But thoughtless follies laid him low
> And stain'd his name.

With what unerring insight the poet reaches to the heart of the difficulty, and with what utter fidelity he lays it bare! The fundamental sin in the career of Burns was

the failure to put his personal life under the power of moral intelligence. That, I do believe, is at the heart of the overwhelming majority of the blasted hopes and the blighted careers with which every fresh generation of young men has hitherto disappointed the world and plunged it in tears.

And even where thought is given to life, it is usually one-sided. There are two great partners in the business of living: the sum of things and the individual man; the universe and the single person; God and the soul. Two questions thus arise in every earnest mind: How does God deal with us? How do we behave toward God? Upon the first question we are marvelously free, and this may be one of the reasons for the amazing popularity in our time of the book of Job. The absolute freedom of speech in which he indulges, the bold way in which he calls the Almighty to account, accords wonderfully well with our prevailing mood. We complain of the weather, which is not our work, but the Almighty's; we are vexed at our physical constitution, which is not of our doing, but of the divine; we are sore at heart—whatever we may pretend to the world—because we are so poorly endowed in intellect, which cannot be laid to our account, but must be laid at the door of our Maker; we are ashamed over the evil dispositions with which our nature is infested, and for which we are in no way responsible. We call God to account for our total inheritance and environment; we ask for light upon the mystery of iniquity and the mystery of pain.

All this freedom of thought is well. Let it go on. There is a fundamental faith in the reality of righteousness underneath it that makes it little short of a revelation of God. Theodicies have their necessity in the moral reason of man and in the conditions of the world. Sometimes they are a mere parade of rhetoric, like Pope's "Essay on Man"; again, they reduce themselves to nothing by denying the facts, like the optimism of Leibnitz; still further, they are epoch-making in their freedom, magnificence, and failure, like Job; and yet once more, they create new hope, as when Milton, on his way toward a justification of the ways of God to men, empties heaven and earth and hell in the presence of faith. Theodicies there have always been; attempts at them there always must be in this world. But the moment we throw the burden of human life, the world, the universe upon God we conquer ground for a new expectation. God will at last construct his own justification.

And what a day that will be when the Eternal appears at the bar of the conscience that he has made and enlightened to give an account of his purpose in the universe! That will be the great and terrible day of the Lord. That is the final judgment toward which the conscience of man looks forward both with awe and with deathless desire. With such a cause, for such an end, with such a Reasoner, how ineffably solemn and grand the scene will be! Then surely the morning stars will renew and perfect their song, and all the sons of God will shout for joy as they never yet have done.

[*January 16.*]

BUT if the universe has its problem, we have ours. It is our privilege to ask God to account to the conscience that he creates and trains for his conduct of the world. But here our solicitude should cease. We may rest assured that the Infinite will give his answer, that God will accomplish what it is his to accomplish. Meanwhile we have our fundamental question, How are we behaving toward the Eternal? Granted that the mystery of temptation, and hard tasks, and disagreeable circumstances, and positive disappointments, and occasional sweeping losses is for God to explain; is it not ours to play the man in all, under all, and through all?

There are two questions that may be asked about the great Face in the Franconia Notch, the "Old Man of the Mountain." You may ask, How does the sky deal with the Face? Does it bite it with frost, does it snow it under, does it sweep it with storms, does it tread the great features with the feet of hurricanes, does it greet it out of an endless succession of sunrises, does the glow of innumerable sunsets, re-

flected from the transfigured clouds that float before it, light up the lofty profile? That is one question. But there is another, How does the Face behave toward the sky? Is it calm and grand and fixed and serene, sublimely expectant, and in immortal reconciliation with the Infinite, and in blessed peace?

How is God dealing with you? What kind of blood has he poured into your veins? Of what tissue and substance has he made you, and what are the forms of trial with which he has girt you? What is your inheritance and what your environment? How is God dealing with you? That is one side of the business of living. But there is another. What is your bearing toward him? Are you a coward or a king, a devotee of indulgence or a hero of righteousness, a mutineer in the world or an unchangeable witness of love and hope?

[*January 23.*]

3. THIS Hebrew thinker was remarkable for the way in which he discovered that he was wrong. He began to think upon his personal life, and he soon found that he was not the first nor the greatest thinker in that region. A royal succession had preceded him. They had recorded their thoughts upon the greatest interests of existence. Their recorded thoughts had become the highest wisdom, the Holy Scriptures, the Bible of the nation to which this man belonged. To these testimonies of God he turned, and these sustained, enlarged, and enlightened his best reflections upon his own life. He took his career to the highest, and in its presence he discovered the error in which he had been trying to live.

When a young man who is gifted as a musician goes to perfect his education, the nobler his nature and the more promising his mood, the more eager he is to live in the company of such musicians as Schubert, Mendelssohn, and Beethoven. These great kings in the realm of harmony are ever about him, ever looking down upon him, and his life is rebuked and corrected by them and inspired at the same time. When a student of painting really wishes to excel, to discover his defect, and to see the path to high achievement, he goes to the great European galleries where the masters will look down upon him from the walls. In the presence of Rembrandt, Titian, and Raphael he will find both the error of his work and the way out of it. There these masters stand, forever revising, forever correcting, forever pointing out the defect, and forever indicating the path to true achievement.

Our own Longfellow, the most completely poetical nature that we have yet produced, owed his humility and his perfection as an artist in no small measure to the fact that he lived with Dante. The great Florentine revised and guided, rebuked and inspired his devoted scholar. And it is beautiful to think of Tennyson, the consummate poet and artist of our century, dying with Shakespeare in his hand, thus acknowledging his deep indebtedness to the high excellence of that supreme poetic genius.

Now when a man of the world wants to test his goodness, what does he usually do? He picks out some shabby church-member and compares him with himself. Finding himself as good as the other member of the comparison—he could not well be worse—he congratulates himself and concludes that he is good enough. And so men who want excuses for their low lives take good men at their worst—Peter when he denied his Master, the ten when they forsook the Lord, Paul when he lost his temper—and again suborn their moral judgment. Take good men at their best; take the divine man Christ, and the error will soon leap to light. There is one hymn which we especially need to sing these days:

> O God, how infinite art thou!
> What worthless worms are we!

We need the sense of contrast between our wretched lives and God's perfections, between our poor, miserable actual and the blazing and eternal ideal. The highest wisdom of the race, the Bible, the highest life in history, the life of Christ—hither we must come for the evolution of a true moral judgment upon our personal life.

[*January 30.*]

4. LAST of all, this man is remarkable for the ease with which, finding he was wrong, he returned to righteousness. He consulted the testimonies of God and found that he was wrong. Instantly the active power of his nature came into play: he turned his feet unto those same testimonies; he grasped the right thought of life; that right thought must be embodied in his heart, in his speech, in his whole existence. Show an honest man that he is wrong; if he sees it, and if he is an honest man, he will turn at once. If he is full of excuses he is a hypocrite. Take the difference between Paul and Felix. Paul, going like a cyclone against Christianity, against the great cause of humanity in his age, is met by the light from heaven. It struck him to the ground. He was spoken to by the Lord, and what is his cry? "What wilt thou have me to do?" The answer is, "Become an apostle; retrace your steps; wherever you have persecuted my cause go and preach it." Instantly he rose up and went, and met the sneer and the scoff and the persecution of those who had hailed his fanaticism with joy, who now hated him because of his adoption of the new faith.

By his immediate renunciation of a discovered error he showed his sincerity. He could not stand by a lie; he could not consecrate his power to that which God had demonstrated to his soul to be wrong. Take now the case of Felix. Paul preached to Felix on temperance and righteousness and judgment to come, and he trembled in his inmost soul at the power of that preaching. What was his response? "Go thy way for this time; when I have a convenient season I will call for thee." He was a sneak! No other word describes it.

Tell a man he is wrong; if he is a man he will right it, by the help of God. Show a man that he is wrong, and if he begins to reason about it, give excuses for it, procrastinate and promise amendment by and by, that man is morally unsound to the center of his soul. When the captain of a ship has been out at sea in a fog for a week, and has been going God only knows where, and suddenly the cloud lifts and the sun streams upon him, and he finds out that he is hundreds and hundreds of miles away from his true course, what does he do? He thanks God for deliverance, for the great rebuke, for the sweet discovery of the light, heads the ship the other way, and begins to beat back with a singing heart to his true course. And so when you find an honest man, and show him that he is not on the right path, that he has departed from his true course, gratitude leaps like a spring set free in his heart, and there is a new song in his soul, and he begins to beat back to righteousness.

These, then, are the four things to be laid to heart. First of all, we must recognize and revere our Maker. In the evolution of the thinker, we must begin at the beginning. We come from God, we go to God, and our entire existence is supported by his will. We must see him face to face; we must feel him under and over and round about and within our life. Our being must be ever open toward him, as the windows of the devout Jew in exile were toward Jerusalem. Our nature must become alive with his presence, our character all shot through with his power. Then we shall have a divinely illuminated intelligence to bring to bear upon the great business of living. Christian manhood will issue from the creative presence of the Eternal Spirit within the soul, mediated, understood, interpreted, and served by the whole power of reason. And in the companionship of the Lord the secret sin, the hidden fault, the entire defect and error of existence, will lie in perpetual open revelation. Last of all, we shall leap to the grandest privilege given to man, the sublime chance for the return to righteousness.

I cannot tell you how very great human life seems to me to be under this conception. I have looked at the tide going seaward, at the ocean returning upon itself, until it seemed as if it would go away forever and come again no more. But the moment of pause, change, and return finally arrived. First in ripples, then in heavier swells and longer rolls, with the constant retrograde constantly checked and overcome, with the

pull of the heavens and the cry of the shore, it thundered to the flood at last. So we retreat from wisdom, from goodness, from God; and so we return when we come to ourselves. To beat back out of the depths and from the far distances, to come homeward in spite of all reverse movements, to rise to the flood at length—that is but a poor symbol for the march upon righteousness, the joy of the successive gains, and the hope of the final and overwhelming triumph in God.—*George A. Gordon, D. D., Pastor of the Old South Church, Boston, Mass.*

LESSING.

BY JOSEPH FORSTER.

GOTTHOLD EPHRAIM LESSING was born in 1729 at Kamenz, in Saxony. His father was his first teacher; afterward John Godfrey, the Protestant clergyman of the place, took him in hand. When he was twelve years of age he was sent to the free school of Meissen, and remained there for five years, acquiring an intimate knowledge of the Greek and Latin languages. From Meissen he went to the Leipsic University. His father wished him to become a clergyman; this he declined to do, on the ground that he did not possess the necessary qualifications. Lessing was true in all he did and all he said. That was his leading characteristic.

Up to this time Lessing had been a student of books only; he now began to study mankind. He went into society and was a diligent attendant at the theater. Poetry and the drama became in time his favorite studies. He wrote his first comedy, and it was performed with success by the Leipsic company. He also published a volume of poems entitled "Trifles." Soon after this he went to Wittenberg, where he took his M. A. degree. He left Wittenberg for Berlin, where he published in 1753 and 1754 an edition of his miscellaneous writings, in four volumes. At Berlin he met Moses Mendelssohn, the celebrated Jewish philosopher, and associated there with the most distinguished men of the time.

From the charms of this delightful society Lessing retired to Potsdam, in order to finish his tragedy "Miss Sara Sampson." This was the first tragedy of middle-class life produced in Germany. It is full of passionate and powerful situations and was greatly applauded; in fact this strikingly original work was translated into the Italian, French, Danish, and English languages.

In 1760 Lessing was elected an honorary member of the Berlin Academy of Sciences. In 1765 he published the "Laocoon," one of the most profoundly philosophical, original, and beautiful works on poetry and art ever produced. In spite of these signal successes Lessing's circumstances were very embarrassed; so much so, indeed, that he resolved to sell his effects and go to live in Italy. In 1772 his splendid tragedy "Emilia Galotti" was performed for the first time in Brunswick, and soon after on every stage in Germany. His next production was his supreme masterpiece, "Nathan the Wise." The last production of Lessing's genius was the treatise "On the Education of the Human Race." His health had been bad for a long time; in addition to this he had been bowed down by cruel poverty. At last his constitution gave way and he expired on the 13th of February, 1781, at the age of fifty-two.

Among the papers left by the dead poet and philosopher were two containing suggestions with which he meant to preface his last dramatic work, had he not been deterred from doing so by fear of increasing the cost of publication. In these notes Lessing informs us that he took the first idea of "Nathan" from Boccaccio's tale of "Melchisedeck the Jew," and had planned his drama some years before it took final shape and saw the light, truly at the cost of its creator's life.

Writing of this work to his brother he says:

The folks here are on the lookout for "Nathan," and imagine I know not what on the subject. But you, my dear brother, have formed an entirely mistaken idea of its character. It will be anything but a satirical piece. . . . . I have, in fact, only returned to my play at this time because I saw that, with some slight alterations in the plan, I could countermarch and fall to great advantage on the enemy. These alterations I have made, and my piece is already in as great a state of forwardness as anything else I have ever written has been when I began to print. Nevertheless I shall go on pruning and polishing till towards Christmas, then begin writing off fair for the press, proceed leisurely with the printing, and be ready to appear without fail at Easter.

There remained, however, one formidable obstacle to the completion of "Nathan"—money enough to keep the author alive while he wrote it. Lessing would have nothing to do with money paid before the work was completed. "Suppose," said he to his brother, "I were to die suddenly. I should owe a thousand people, perhaps, a couple of shillings, every one of whom would feel himself entitled to abuse me to the extent of a couple of crowns at least. Yet what am I to do? Money I must have until Easter comes round, and to provide it I should have constantly to pause in a work which will not brook interruption."

Lessing's brother Charles must, we may presume, have been as poor as he, or he would have advanced the modest sum required (about three hundred dollars), for the brothers were united by the tenderest affection and confidence. Charles, however, spoke to a kind-hearted Jew of Hamburg, Moses Wesseley by name, to whom Lessing's works were well known. Wesseley said he was willing to advance the amount required if Lessing himself would write to him and ask for the loan.

"Suppose," said Charles Lessing, "that he should not be disposed to write such a letter?"

"He shall have the money nevertheless," said the kind-hearted Jew, "for when he touches the amount he will surely acknowledge the receipt."

And thus to the generosity of a Hamburg Jew the world owes one of the purest, wisest, and most exalted works in the world's literature.

We may also believe that the generosity of Wesseley added some of the masterly strokes which make "Nathan the Wise" live as a grand and imperishable picture of wisdom and magnanimity. Lessing fully realized that this was his last great production. He felt the full power of thought active in his mighty brain; but the heart and the poorly nourished body were rapidly giving way. "Nathan the Wise" was given to the world in return for a very limited supply of bread and water.

Lessing's preceding plays, "Miss Sara Sampson," "Minna von Barnhelm," "Emilia Galotti," and "The Free Thinker," were in prose; but he determined that "Nathan" should be in verse. He selected verse because it is the most concentrated form of human utterance; it is, or should be, the quintessence of prose. What a good thing it would be if some of the tireless producers of flabby, sprawling, badly rimed twaddle would learn that!

"I have not had recourse to verse," he writes to his friend Ramler, the poet, "in consideration of its euphony. I have thought that the oriental tone I must adopt here and there would better consort with verse than with prose."

In writing to his constant friend, Eliza Reimarus, Lessing refers to the isolation in which he lived—hated by the wicked, misunderstood by the foolish, as all original, disinterested thinkers have been, and indeed must be:

I am left here entirely alone; I have not a friend near me to whom I can unbosom myself, and I am daily assailed by a hundred anxieties. I must indeed pay dearly for the single year I lived with my beloved wife. [His wife had died at the birth of their babe.] How often do I lament the day that I aspired to be as blessed as other men; how often wish that I could return to my old solitary state—be nothing, and do nothing save that which the necessities of the passing moment required. But I am too proud to think myself unhappy; I set my teeth and let the boat drive as wind and tide determine—enough that I do not myself upset it.

Lessing evidently pours out the deep sor-

row of his soul in the following scene between the Lay Brother and Nathan. The latter adopts and educates a Christian child which is brought to him by the Lay Brother.

Lay Brother. . . . . Full oft
Have I myself with streaming eyes deplored
That men who call them Christians should forget
That our dear Lord himself was born a Jew.

Nathan. You, my good brother, must defend my cause,
Should bigotry and hate rise up against me
By reason of my act toward this dear child.
To you I feel me moved to impart a tale
Involving deeds of a far different die—
But take my secret with you to the grave!
To tell a tale I have not till this hour
Once breathed into the ear of living man.
To you alone I ope my mind; to you,
The simple pious soul, I show my grief;
For such as you alone can understand
What trust in God implies, how love of him
Can reconcile us with the hardest fate!

Lay Brother. You are much moved—your eyes are full of tears.

Nathan. You and the infant found me at Darun;
But you know not that some few days before
A Christian rabble rose on the Jews at Gath,
And murdered all—women and children, old
And young; you know not that with them my wife
And seven hopeful sons, whom I had lodged
For safety in my brother's house, were burned
To death!
When you arrived,
Already had I lain three days and nights
In dust and ashes, and in tears 'fore God—
In tears said I? Almost at war with God,
Raving against myself and all the world,
And vowing deathless hatred to the Christian name.

Lay Brother. Ah! I can well believe you, in your plight.

Nathan. But reason by degrees returned, and I,
In calmer mood, could say:
And yet God is!
This, too, God suffered!
So—his will be done!
Come, put in practice what thou apprehendest;
That which, if thou but will'st, is not more hard
To practice than to apprehend—Arise!
I rose, I stood erect, and called on God,
And said: I will, if such be thy behest!
'Twas then that you dismounted at the door,
And put into my hands the babe, wrapt close
Within your cloak. What then you said to me,
What I to you, is long ago forgotten;
But this I know: I took the helpless child,
Laid it upon my bed, kissed it, sank down
Upon my knees and sobbed aloud: O God,
One of my seven restored to me—thanks, thanks!

Lay Brother. Nathan, you are a Christian! 'Fore my God, no better Christian lives!

Nathan's life is in danger from having adopted a Christian child. He engaged for the babe a Christian nurse, who taught it, by this noble Jew's orders, the Christian religion.

Lessing's "Nathan" appears to me to embody the divine lesson that "humble, meek, merciful, pious, and devout souls are everywhere of one religion, and when death has taken off their masks they will know one another, though the diverse liveries they wore in life made them strangers."

The following passage bears witness to the lofty purity of Lessing's genius and to the deep humanity of his heart:

By the pursuit, not by the possession, of truth is man ennobled and his powers enlarged. Were the Almighty Father to appear with all truth in his right hand, and in his left the power of attaining truth with the liability to err attached, and say, "Son, take thy choice," I should reply, "Father, truth absolute is for thee alone; the power to search and the gift to apprehend bestowed by thee suffice for man. I choose the left."

That sublime passage reminds one of Browning's masterpiece, "Abt Vogler":

But God has a few of us whom he whispers in the ear;
The rest may reason and welcome.

If the Almighty ever whispered into the ears of mortal men he did into those of Lessing and Browning. How the noble poet of the past passes the burning torch of truth into the hands of the grand seer and poet who so recently left us! Yes, indeed, all wise and good are of one religion!

The scene of "Nathan the Wise" is in Jerusalem. Saladin is on the throne. He is generous and even prodigal, and sends for Nathan to borrow money of him. Nathan, in the course of conversation, tells Saladin the following story:

Nathan. In the olden, olden time
There lived an eastern chief who owned a ring
Of priceless worth, had from the hands of one
He dearly loved. The stone, an opal, flashed
The broken lights in hundred lovely hues
Upon the eye, and had the marvelous power
To make him loved alike of God and man
Who, strong in his assurance, wore the ring.

What wonder, therefore, if the eastern lord
Ne'er left the treasure from his hand, and made
Such disposition as secured its passing
As heirloom in the house forever? He,
Leaving the ring to him among his sons
Whom he loved best, commanded that his heir
Should in his turn bequeath it to the one
Among his sons whom he most dearly loved;
And more: that the possessor of the ring,
Without regard to claims of prior birth,
In right of the ownership alone, should rule
As lord of all. You understand me, sultan?

Saladin. Proceed. I understand.

Nathan. So came the ring
From sire to sire, until at length it fell
To one, the father of three loving sons,
All dutiful alike, and all by him
Cherished with like regard; now this, now that,
And then the third appearing in his eyes
The dearest and the best, as each in turn
Was left with him alone, the other two
Not sharing then in the love that filled his heart—
Each, in a word, seemed worthiest of the ring;
And he, with pious weakness, promised each
That he should have it. Time ran on, and on,
Till the old man, knowing his end drew nigh,
Began to feel the pain of his position:
It grieved him sorely now that he must needs
Defeat the hopes of two among his sons,
Each of whom he knew relied on him.
What could be done? How 'scape from the dilemma?
He summoned privily a jeweler,
Of whom he ordered two more opal rings,
After the pattern of the one he wore,
Nor cost nor pains being spared in making them
Exactly like his own. The artist triumphs:
The rings produced, the father cannot tell
Which of the three is his. Content, resigned,
He calls his sons in turn to his bedside,
And gives to each his blessing and a ring,
And then soon after dies. You mark me, sultan?

Saladin. I mark you well; but end your tale, I pray.

Nathan. It is already at an end; for all
That follows may be readily divined.
The father dead, each son displays his ring,
And would assert his place as lord of all;
Discussion follows, difference, dispute—
In vain! The true ring cannot now be known.

(Pause.)

As little as 'mong ourselves this day
The true religion.

. . . . . .

I speak as Jew to Mussulman; to
Christian 'twere the same.
Return we to the story of our rings:
As said, the sons could come to no agreement;
Each swore in turn before the judge that he
Had had the ring immediate from the hand
Of his dear father—and how true was this!
That he besides had had his father's promise
Of all the privileges of the ring—
How, no less true! his father loved him dearly;
Could not have played him false; sooner than think
Of harboring doubts of one so dear to him,
Though still disposed to think the best of them,
He'd rather charge his brothers with foul play;
But he'd find means to unwork the traitors; yes,
He'd be revenged.

Saladin. Well done, what said the judge?

Nathan. Thus spoke the judge:
"As you do not—cannot—
Produce the father, I dismiss the suit.
What, think ye I am here to unravel riddles?
Or shall we stay until the true ring speaks?
But hold! The true ring has the power, 'tis said,
To make its owner loved of God and man;
This must decide. The counterfeits, you'll own,
Have no such virtue. Say then, as ye stand,
Which of the three love two the most?
What—silent all! Each loves himself alone,
And ye are doubtless all alike deceived:
The rings ye wear must needs be counterfeits;
The magic ring was lost, as it would seem,
And to conceal the loss your loving father
Had those you wear made like it."

Saladin. Excellent!
Proceed, I pray!

Nathan. The judge went on and said:
"If ye seek judgment, and not counsel, go.
But would you rather be advised, I'd say:
Content ye with the matter as it stands.
If from his father each have had a ring,
Let each believe his own to be the true one.
'Tis possible your father will'd to end
The sovereignty of one among his sons.
To me, indeed, 'twould plainly seem that he
Had loved you all alike when he took steps
To aggrieve no two by favoring one. Well, then,
Let each of you comport him in such wise
As love unbribed commands; let each resolve
To show the world that in the ring he wears
He holds the prize, its virtues being shown
To man in acts of justice, meekness, mercy,
To God in thoughts of love and heartfelt trust.
And when a thousand thousand years have passed,
When children's children's children wear the rings,
Came they anew before the judgment seat,
One wiser than myself might then sit here,
And make the award."
Thus spoke the righteous judge.

Saladin. My God! my God!

Nathan. Now sultan, if you feel
That *you* are *he*—the promised judge—

Saladin. Who—I? I, dust!
I, less than nothing! No—
Nathan. My sovereign, what is this?
Saladin. Dear Nathan, no!
The thousand thousand years of your wise judge
Have not yet passed; his seat is not the one
I fill! So leave me now; but be my friend.

I have nearly confined myself to the analysis of this sublime scene because it contains the undying soul and spirit of real religion, which cannot be dimmed by the thick smoke of warring creeds. Before concluding I will refer to the treatise "On the Education of the Human Race." Lessing clearly states his belief that humanity, in its development, passes from law to love; from mere obedience to a dogmatic creed to faith, love, and charity. He says:

In our "schemes of redemption" and "plans of salvation" we have not yet reached the full meaning of the name under which God has revealed himself in the latter days—"Our Father."

In our eagerness to prove the damnation of every soul who does not believe this or that dogma we are in danger of forgetting that Christianity is either a Gospel of salvation or it is valueless; and we overlook the inevitable necessity that the human mind must pass through ignorance, doubt, and error before it can be capable of receiving pure truth. . . . Each little sect or religion has doubtless had some germ of the truth within it, which has rendered it subservient to the great purpose of fertilizing the world—but so long as the professors of either of them think that they are the favored children of the Divine Father, whom he regards with a complacency with which he does not view the rest of humanity, so long is the fulness of God's idea not attained by them.

THE SOVEREIGNS OF ITALY IN GERMANY.

BY E. ARBIB.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

THE great autumnal maneuvers of the German army are always a memorable event, in which the whole German people take part, directly or indirectly. Not only is the kaiser present from the moment they begin until they end, but he delights in being attended by the monarchs and princes of foreign countries, as well as by the princes of Germany. Two years ago he invited the Emperor Francis Joseph. Last year he had the czar and czarina of Russia with him at Breslau. This year he asked the king and queen of Italy to honor with their presence the maneuvers of four army corps, the greatest yet undertaken by the German Empire. So in response to this proffer of hospitality King Humbert and the queen left their royal residence of Monza on September 3 and journeyed directly to Homburg, the kaiser's headquarters during the maneuvers. This pretty little town, whither many strangers betake themselves for health or pleasure from the middle of August to the middle of October every year, became in this way for one week the center of many interests, military and political. There were gathered there, with the kaiser and the empress of Germany, the king and queen of Italy, the king of Saxony, the grand duke and grand duchess of Hesse, the crown prince of Baden, Prince Albert of Prussia, two of the Bavarian princes, the duke of Cambridge, and, after the 8th of the month, the Grand Duke Nicholas of Russia.

Before going to Homburg the German monarch visited, in turn, the cities where the corps were being concentrated which should maneuver before him afterward—Coblenz, Nuremberg, Würzburg, and Aschaffenburg. The troops passed before him in review before they took up their march toward their new encampments, and after this parade a dinner was given to the general officers and corps commanders, some one hundred and fifty or two hundred in number. For the Prussian, Hessian, and Bavarian troops, that were to concentrate near Homburg, the preliminary review to the maneuvers took place September 4 on a vast plain extending from Ober to Nieder Erlenbach. Here twenty to twenty-five

thousand men paraded, infantry, artillery, dragoons, and uhlans. A squadron of bicyclists was to be reviewed also, but owing perhaps to the heavy rains and soggy ground the order was countermanded at the last moment. The king of Italy was present at the review. The other troops, stationed at greater distances, were advancing meanwhile by long and wearisome marches. On the 8th of September all were assembled. The 6th had seen the contact of the cavalry of the various armies and their advance guards; on the 7th larger detachments, two divisions on each side, had disputed the territory; on the 8th the decisive combat took place, which was continued on the day following, and the 10th united in one single army the corps which were antagonists before, they all joining in a battle which was little else than a parade, ideally planned so as to give the kaiser the command of some twelve divisions at one time. It is the custom to bring about this union of all the troops on the last day of the maneuvers so as to have them fight a battle against an imaginary enemy, and the divisions and rivalries of the preceding days disappear in the unity of the army and the supreme command of the kaiser.

It is always difficult to apply to grand maneuvers the technical language of real war. To speak of sharp attacks and obstinate resistance, where the audacity of the risk or the contempt of death is lacking, which alone ennobles them, takes all seriousness from phrases and changes them into an absurd parody. However well planned and directed they may be, grand maneuvers will never give the idea of an army's attitude in front of the enemy. Those who persist in thinking that war is a sequence of operations prepared in advance and carried out according to a plan rigorously conceived know very little about military history. Nor is this the system of the German staff. The first to deny the validity of this reasoning was Marshal Moltke himself, and he always abode by his affirmation. War, and particularly a battle, is principally governed by unforeseen incidents, not even thought of a few hours before they happen. The most bloody of modern battles, Solferino, Sadowa, Custoza, Wörth, happened precisely at the time when one of the two belligerent armies thought it was not going to fight. For the Duke of Wellington all the art of war consisted in two things which are forced against each other, one of which presses for a longer time and therefore conquers. Hence, do as you please, the grand maneuvers, where there are in reality neither assailants nor assailed, can never indicate the potentiality of an army in face of the enemy. It is well known that the Prussians who were annihilated at Jena presented a sight of remarkable ability on the parade ground.

Still, maneuvers, if carried on intelligently and zealously, are of use in teaching generals and soldiers those military exercises that are indispensable to war. A general becomes accustomed now to hold back, now to throw forward, the twenty or thirty thousand men that are under him. The foot-soldier whom the corporal puts on sentinel duty behind a tree at night learns how to remain alone for an hour in that vast silence of the misty country with his eyes staring and intent on surprising the least movement of an approaching enemy. All the accessory services, the telegraph, railways, forage, provisions, pontoons, ambulances, and nowadays the bicyclists, go through an annual examination at the time of the grand maneuvers, and afford to the directing minds the opportunity for correcting defects or perfecting the good points. So in these respects the grand maneuvers are a powerful aid in the preparation of war.

For these reasons we understand how a nation which is essentially military and progressive, like the German, attaches the greatest importance to their grand maneuvers, and endeavors to give them a greater development every year and a tendency more pronounced and noticeable toward perfection. The chief staff prepares the question and formulates it in the fewest possible words. It indicates at one and the same time the positions which the troops are presumably to occupy on both sides at the beginning of the maneuvers. This be-

ing done, it leaves the utmost freedom of action to the commanders. Since it is a question of large masses of troops dispersed over a very wide region, it would be impossible to embrace their movements with a single eye. So not long ago the body known as "informing officers" was instituted, who, at the end of each daily maneuver, elucidate the situation of the two armies and communicate it to each of the commanders respectively. It is a long and minute work, and, inasmuch as each maneuver lasts up to three or even four o'clock, the reports of the "informing officers," which the kaiser reviews every evening, never reach the corps until after nightfall, thus leaving to their commanders very little time for new decisions. Such a system is of immense assistance to them, and in so far excludes combinations prepared at leisure and promulgated everywhere in advance. No one, not even the emperor, can know in the morning what may happen during the day, and how, in what direction, with what and how great forces the commanders may move out. Unless I am mistaken, this is the most important feature of the German maneuvers, taking from them wherever possible the characteristic of an academic and conventional preparation and thereby making them really instructive.

This year the general question was the following: "In the last days of August a western army passes the Rhine near Coblenz. An eastern army is formed at once behind the Thuringian Forest, the Werra, and the upper Weser. This army is to receive reinforcements from Bavaria." In other words, the supposed war was an attempt at invasion by Prussia—the western army—of Bavaria and Hesse, and on the other hand an energetic defense of these countries—the eastern army—against the enemy, particularly to prevent his crossing the Main. On September 6, the first day of the assumed war, the Eleventh Prussian Army Corps, in three divisions, was concentrated between Homburg and Offenbach, with a single division beyond the Main and the cavalry this side the river at Friedberg. The Eighth Corps, also in three divisions, was further on, between Wetzlar and Usingen. On their side the Bavarians had massed both their army corps, each in three divisions, between Wiesen and Seeligenstadt, their cavalry between Nidda and Gelnhausen, in front of the Prussian cavalry and the troops of the Eleventh Corps. Evidently the eastern army was better concentrated than the western, whose two corps were too far from each other. And in fact the Bavarian army, advancing in force, drove back the scattered divisions of its adversary, and, after a theoretically bloody battle, forced it to retire beyond Homburg.

On this last day, as we were watching the battle, a part of the Bavarian army appeared from the direction where it was least expected. The emperor did not know up to ten o'clock whence the enemy would come. At that hour he was informed by telegraphic despatches and messengers riding up post-haste, and about noon the first squadrons were seen. From our position we could get no view of the combatants, on account of the trees, but we heard that intense fire of musketry, the noise of which, with the repeating rifles, resembles a rattling hail-storm, and makes one think with terror of the horrible slaughter of future actual battles. Later on, while the cannon were thundering on all sides, we had even in the level plain the sight of a set combat of guns against guns, extending in long rows, but with much less interval between the men than is customary with us.

Any one who would assume to measure the worth of the German army by the test of the grand maneuvers would commit an unpardonable error. The merit is found elsewhere. It is principally in the disciplined temperament of the people, in the zeal of the kaiser, in the gathering of the other princes of the empire, in the bearing of the officers, even of the most humble grades, each of whom in his way of being and doing seems to have descended from a most ancient and noble stock; and more than all it consists in the prosperity of the nation which consents to the adoption of the largest measures for the army. Equally potent moral and material forces combine,

then, to form of this army an incredibly gigantic machine, superbly elaborated, averse to any spontaneous action, but adapted, I think, to grind to pieces whoever should try to offend or threaten the great German Fatherland.

During the maneuvers my eyes often rested on the white head of the king of Saxony. He, forsooth, had no need of exposing himself to the fatigues and discomforts of a life that is by necessity exhausting, especially as this year the Saxon troops did not take part in the maneuvers. Nevertheless he submitted most eagerly to the life of the camp, and frequently remained five hours in succession on horseback. The king of Würtemberg, in the flower of his years and manhood, did the same thing, likewise the grand duke and grand duchess of Hesse-Darmstadt, Prince Albert of Prussia, Baden's crown prince, and three royal princes of Bavaria, Arnolph, Louis, and Leopold. As if to indicate the part the princes of Germany would play in case of war, one of these princes, Leopold, had the command of the whole Hessian-Bavarian army in these maneuvers, and another, Arnolph, the command of an army corps. The presence of all these princes in camp undoubtedly raises the spirits of the soldiers, who meet them constantly and applaud them often. And in order to offer to their fancy the nourishment it needs they see the empress riding about and reviewing the troops on horseback in the uniform of a general of the white cuirassiers, while the young and attractive grand duchess of Hesse, with a helmet on her head and an infantry uniform closely fitted to her slight frame, defiles at the head of the regiment the emperor has given to her.

Being in contact with the German troops for some days, and talking now and then not only with officers of high rank but also with corporals and soldiers, I quickly discovered the desire to do their best, which is common to all, not because they are commanded to it here and there but because they feel it their duty. The respect of the people for the army is certainly great, but its sympathy and affection are even greater. Not only are the emperor and the princes greeted with rapturous applause as they pass, but the generals are also acclaimed, and are known almost all by name, even in the little town of Homburg. The popular favorite now is General von Haseler, who closely resembles Von Moltke—the same sharp, beardless face, the same stature, the same silence. He lives only for the soldiers, and they live for him. He commanded one of the two armies, the Prussian, and when he appeared on the field the sightseers left the emperor and gathered around him.

People and army are closely united in Germany; the tie is solid and intimate. And what causes you the greatest wonder is the quiet, the modesty, I might even say the compassion of that boundless power composed of citizens and soldiers together. You feel as though you were living among giants, and you experience now and then a sensation of terror. But then you perceive that these proud men, tall in stature, are always ready to smile on you, and are the best of people, incapable, save when they are tormented, of hurting the smallest hair of your head. The kaiser himself, whose fulminating speeches seem so proud and threatening from a distance, is at the bottom what we familiarly call a "good fellow," and if you will look at him carefully you will see a smile hovering about the corners of his mouth. On horseback, with one of those richly adorned, gilded uniforms on, William II., in his robust virility, has certainly the appearance of an armed knight of the Middle Ages. On foot his gait is that of an ordinary man going about his business, ready to ask the first person he meets for a match to light his cigarette.

Here in Germany, where there is such might, the idea of pomp is absolutely wanting. With us in Italy the queen cannot go out without a lady in waiting and a nobleman in attendance in the same carriage with her. In Germany she went alone with one of the two empresses. Even in the highest circles there is that tendency of living unpretentiously. In a country where science has reached the loftiest heights of human knowledge, where military power

can bring together 120,000 men for the grand maneuvers, without annulling the furlough of a single soldier, where industry and commerce are triumphantly invading the field which for ages has been occupied unchallenged by France and England, the people still preserve their primitive instincts, and are amused by sights and festivals which would seem childish to us.

But what is especially consoling is the great prosperity that rules everywhere. I ask myself how the mayor of Homburg will be able to distribute the sum of $1,200, which, as is stated, the king has left with him for the poor. No poor man is ever seen. On every hand proofs of a steady competency meet the eye. Leaving out of account Frankfort, which has been entirely renewed in twenty years and which is a city of surpassing beauty and sumptuousness, though it does not yet contain 300,000 inhabitants, we find in this little town of Homburg, with a population of 9,000, streets, buildings, shops, parks, gardens, and conveniences which would not shame a great capital, and of which such Italian cities as Leghorn have not even a trace. It is not true that the school won the great battles of 1866 and 1870, but it is certain that enforced instruction in Germany has produced most excellent fruits.

Now this people, which has so harmonious a life and one so complete in its manifestation, is a people allied to us, and its emperor adds to the alliance a lively, genuine, and cordial affection for our sovereigns. There are moments when all political reasons vanish and give place to the movements of the heart. All who come near to the German monarch affirm that he loves King Humbert with a more than fraternal love, and that he has a predilection no less strong for Queen Margaret, whom they call here the "wonderful lady."

No great festivals were given in honor of our sovereigns, for festivals are not suited to such a period of work and study as exists during the grand maneuvers. They were invited for these maneuvers and the greater part of the time at their disposal was given up to them. Not a single banquet was planned in their honor, since the two they were present at were military dinners, given by the kaiser to his officers. The invitation of the Empress Frederick to her castle, where she lives lonely and sad the whole year through, was entirely informal, like that of a great, noble lady who desires to pass an additional hour with friends who are most dear to her. Barely was there a court concert and a torchlight parade enlivened by a score of military bands. The maneuvers took up not less than eight hours a day, and evening parties could hardly fit into them.

But in the absence of entertainments there was the constant exhibition of a genuine friendship. The allegorical performance at the Wiesbaden theater, which was to celebrate anew our alliance, was hardly one that commended itself to our artistic gaze or which blunted our skeptical criticism. But what delicacy of thought it showed, when before our sovereigns' eyes it was Germany herself who exalted Italy and demanded her alliance and friendship! And what refined sentiment in making the splendid vision of Rome, great and immortal, follow the sight of the Teutonic forest! We would show ourselves insensible to every noble and lofty conception if we should pretend through vulgar pride that we did not perceive the exquisite courtesy which the Germans, both court and people, maintain in their attitude toward the Italian alliance. Our king was as much applauded as was the kaiser, and every class of citizens tried with loyal ingenuity to show him that they are grateful to him for the firm and faithful friendship he bears to Germany. And so at Wiesbaden they extolled the native land of Dante, of Michael Angelo, of Petrarch, and of Tasso, and asked its friendship and rejoiced in obtaining it.

(End of Required Reading for January.)

THE FISHING INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES.

BY GUILD A. COPELAND.

TO the country boy who cuts a sapling in the near-by woods and sets out with a can of worms to sit in the shade of the old plank bridge, fishing means pleasure. To the Gloucester man who goes to the "Banks" for a whole season, fishing means work—hard, poorly paid, dangerous work. To the frequenter of the quiet wharves at New London, fishing means a memory of the prosperous past. To the skilled employee at Washington, who watches the jars of trout eggs as the chemist watches a boiling beaker of acids, the fishing industry is a science.

Only a few years after the great voyage of Columbus, while the Spaniards, avaricious and cruel, swept over the new continent in greedy search for gold, Sebastian Cabot called the attention of Englishmen to the great importance of the fisheries along the North Atlantic coast. Bartholomew Gosnold, no seeker after El Dorados, caught a cod off a great headland which he called Cape Cod. The English explorers were shrewd enough to realize the importance of good fishing-grounds, and they told their countrymen of these things. Capt. John Smith did much to lure colonists to New England in this way. Soon after the landing of the Pilgrims a boat-load of fish was sent from Massachusetts to England. Later we find the people of the colony selling fish to the stout burghers of New Amsterdam. In this way began New England's great industry; and about fifty years after the landing of the Pilgrims the profits from the Cape Cod fisheries went to found a free school. The abundance of the schools of mackerel and herring made it possible to have schools for the small fry on shore. In the contrast between that incident and the deeds of Cortez or Pizarro in Peru, one may read history in a nutshell.

The story of the fishing industry of the colonies is to a large degree the story of New England. The industry was one of the mainstays of the people. It entered into their political issues and was a great factor in financial conditions. The trade with the West Indies was, to a large extent, in fish, a commodity which was profitable because of the need of the planters for some cheap food for their slaves. Salt fish answered this need, and consequently ships went to the tropical ports upon the Atlantic laden with lumber and fish, returning with molasses and coffee. The fish of New England went to Spain, Portugal, and Italy. Even as early as the beginning of the eighteenth century thousands of Massachusetts men were employed in the fishing industry, and the New England towns interested in fisheries became rich and prosperous. One may see to-day in New England some stately and imposing colonial mansions that were built out of the profits of the fisheries about a century ago.

One hears much about the stamp-tax on tea, but to New England men the act of Great Britain in 1775, depriving colonists of the right to fish on the Newfoundland Banks, was largely instrumental in precipitating the Revolution. The tax on tea hurt the pride of the colonists, but the embargo on the Newfoundland fisheries meant ruin to many Americans. After the Revolution Great Britain still further interfered with the trade of American fishermen, but they in turn manned the frigates and privateers in the War of 1812 and had their revenge.

The fishing industry to-day is not as profitable as it was in the earlier days of this country. The large fortunes that were so quickly made by New Englanders cannot be duplicated by fishing ventures in this age. Occasionally the fishermen on the Banks or the whalers in the arctic make a lucky cruise, but on an average the men make a fair livelihood and little more. The history of Massachusetts, for example, is

associated constantly with the episodes of the fishing industry, and yet, in the matter of the capital invested or the product, that industry seems small when compared with any of the great manufacturing industries of the commonwealth.

The whaling industry, for example, once made fortunes for the shrewd men who put their money into whaling ventures. New Bedford, New London, and other ports in New England grew prosperous from the industry. Then came the mineral oil discoveries in Pennsylvania, and soon afterward whales became scarce. A recent despatch announces that the entire take of the arctic fleet this year will not exceed $750,000 in value. The contrast between the fortunes made in a former generation and the report of the present arctic catch sums up a great deal in the way of history in the industry. The bowhead whale is rarely found by the whalers outside of the waters of the arctic region. The modern whaler starts from San Francisco (even New England vessels are largely numbered in the San Francisco fleet nowadays) and sails northward. Preparations almost as elaborate as those for a voyage of arctic exploration have been made, and indeed the voyage may be as hazardous as that of a Peary or a Nansen.

The actual taking of a whale has been so often described, even in juvenile literature, that only a brief description of the process can be given. After leaving port constant watch is kept on board and when a whale is sighted a boat is sent out and a lance with a rope attached is sent into the unwary whale. The whale starts off, with his pursuers in tow, and a marksman stationed in the bow of the boat takes the first opportunity to discharge a "bomb lance" into the cetacean. The whalebone is taken from the mouth of the whale as soon as his captors have put an end to his life. The blubber is "tried out" into oil.

It sometimes happens that when other whales are in sight and therefore captors are in a hurry they will merely take the whalebone and let the carcass go, as oil is now so low in price that it hardly pays to lose the chance of getting more whalebone in order to get the oil. Even the price of whalebone has fallen so much in the last two years that the returns are too small to dispel the fear that whaling will soon become a very unimportant part of the fishing industry. Whales are so scarce now that some vessels spend one or two winters in the arctic regions so as to be on the whaling grounds as early as possible in the arctic spring.

To appreciate the dangers of arctic whaling it is necessary to know only a few of the stories of disasters that are frequent enough in the industry. News has recently come of the fate of the steam-whaler *Navarch*, of New Bedford. The captain, his wife, and two officers escaped from the vessel after she was caught in the ice, and after many sufferings they were rescued by a revenue cutter. The crew, thirty in number, stayed by the steamer. The food finally gave out, and then the steamer sank, but not before nearly half of the crew had died from starvation and exposure. The sixteen survivors could do nothing but trust themselves to the floating ice-floes which bore them hither and thither in the arctic currents. Day after day passed with no relief in sight. For nearly two weeks the wretched sailors floated along, suffering the indescribable tortures of hunger. As a last resort they even ate greedily of the skins which served as their clothing. Out of more than thirty persons who sailed on the *Navarch*, fourteen perished. Stories like this are all too common in the history of the whaling industry.

In view of the story of the *Navarch*, the news which has recently come from the whaling fleet is alarming. It is to the effect that seven other vessels are caught in the ice near Herschell Island. The United States government will attempt to get provisions to the ice-bound fleet, but the success of the expedition is doubtful. It is barely possible that the whaling crews may make their way across the ice-fields and the wastes of northern Alaska to the Klondike settlements. It is also possible that the crews may stick to the fleet and may per-

chance maintain life in some wretched fashion through the long arctic winter. The great danger is that some mighty movement of the ice-floes may crush the imprisoned vessels like so many egg-shells; and that fate is all too likely to be realized.

The seal fisheries of the United States are practically those on the Pribyloff Islands. These fisheries are farmed out to the highest bidder by the United States government, and were formerly a good source of income. During the present decade, however, the government has reduced the amount of rental because the lessees have not been allowed to take more than a small number of seals each year. Only the so-called "bachelor" seals are taken; and these are selected from the herds somewhat after the manner of a cattle "round-up" in the West. The bachelor seals are then driven off by themselves and are killed with a stout cudgel or club, death being practically instantaneous.

Because of the threatened extermination of the seals of the Pacific Ocean some experiments have recently been made by a government representative in the direction of ascertaining whether seals may not be raised directly on the islands. Hitherto the seal herds have been allowed to leave Alaskan waters on the approach of cold weather and to seek a refuge in southern waters. In their passage to and from Bering Sea the seals are hunted by the so-called "poachers" from Victoria. There is no doubt that a number of Americans are interested in the vessels of the sealing fleet from Victoria, but for practically self-evident reasons the fleet is made up of Canadian vessels, and it is on that account that Canada has such an interest in the seal fisheries dispute.

From a strictly scientific point of view, of course, neither whales nor seals are fishes, but both the whaling industry and the sealing industry are included in the term "American fisheries" as it is generally understood. The oyster and clam industries are also included in that term, in spite of any objections which the scientist may feel disposed to make. The great center for the oyster industry is in the waters of the Chesapeake Bay and along the Atlantic coast as far north as Cape Cod. Oysters and clams may be and often are cultivated in what are known as "beds"; that is, on certain areas of of the ocean's bed near shore, where the conditions are favorable for the growth of the mollusks. Oysters are cultivated almost entirely in this way, and from present developments it seems likely that the hard-shell clam industry will be carried on after a similar fashion. At present, however, the soft-shell clam, which is generally preferred to the hard-shell clam by New England epicures, is dug up from sandy beaches, where the clam burrows at a distance of about a foot below the surface.

The life of the ordinary fisherman on board an oyster boat in Chesapeake Bay is perhaps not as dangerous as that of the whaler or of the cod fisherman on the Banks; but it is a brutal life, a hard life, and the most miserable in this country, next to that of a slave in some of the worst convict camps that existed a few years ago in the South. Some of the stories of the sufferings endured by miserable members of crews on certain oyster boats would be too horrible to print.

The great fisheries off the coast of New England and further north along the Atlantic coast have been the source of a great part of the product of American fisheries. To understand the conditions which have made these fishing-grounds famous, it is necessary to realize that under the waters of the Atlantic Ocean there extends a long chain of mountainous elevations, which form what are known as the "Banks." Among the best known of these are George's and Brown's Banks, near the coast of Massachusetts, and Le Have, Grand, and Western Banks, lying further northeast. The fish of the North Atlantic, the cod, hake, halibut, and cusk, are attracted to this spot by reason of the comparative shallowness of the water, and fishermen go directly to the Banks, knowing that the fish will be found there if anywhere.

The very fact that the water is shallower

around the Banks than elsewhere, however, is a great source of danger to the fishermen. The tides sweep with great force along the sides of the submerged mountains and through the gaps between the elevated portions. Strong and sometimes almost resistless currents are formed, and in a time of storm many luckless vessels have been overwhelmed by these conditions. The ocean that sweeps in eddies and currents over the Banks represents the tears of thousands of widows and orphans, and in the shifting, driving sands beneath are whitening the bones of many men. Gloucester, on Cape Ann, has a well-shaded graveyard adorned with marble shafts and other tokens of remembrance of the dead; but far away at sea, where to-day there ride the vessels of the Gloucester fishing fleet, there are other graveyards, where in quiet lie those whose only funeral song was the shriek of the winter wind and the triumphant roar of the great tempest.

Into this great graveyard last year went 88 men, the year before 94 men, and the year before thirty vessels were sunk and 137 men were lost. Ten years before that 131 men were lost, and ten years before that date as many as 681 went down to death while their children and wives were praying at home. Is it any wonder that the women of Gloucester hate the sea as the people of Athens hated the minotaur? The tribute of Athens, indeed, was small compared with the awful tribute that the ever hungry sea demands from the homes of Gloucester.

Every year, on an average, some fifteen vessels are lost on the Banks, and the money value of those vessels averages over $40,000 annually. Drowning, however, is not the worst fate the fisherman has to fear. He faces such death boldly. If, in the hush of night, some swift ocean steamer cuts down his vessel, and does in an instant what a hundred storms have failed to do—well, the end has come more quickly, that is all. But sometimes the fishermen who are out in their dories are cut off by storm and fog from their refuge, and are carried away from sight and sound of the fleet. Then who may tell the awful story? Sometimes the men meet with help before the tortures of hunger and thirst have done their worst. One or two men are picked up at sea, madly praying for just a drop of water. The others call fate kind when it sends a storm to drown their agony in the swirling tides of the Banks.

There are certain peculiarities in the fishing on the Banks that are not generally known. Thus the vessel that fits out may be a "trawler" or a "hand-liner" for the trip; that is, she may get her fish with hand-lines cast over the side of the vessel or by means of a long line floated on the surface, and having pendant below a number of baited lines, tied, at equal distances apart, to the line on the surface. By pulling in the trawl-line the fisherman attends to each of the baited lines as they come to him, taking off the fish that have been caught on the hooks or rebating the empty hooks. Halibut fishing on the Banks is done mainly by trawling, and the lines go down in perhaps half a mile of water, while the trawl at the surface may extend over a distance of two miles. When the trawls are all out, a fisherman may have to go eight or ten miles away from his vessel to tend his trawls. If a storm or fog come up at the time—a two-line paragraph in the news despatches when the vessel reaches port again, and a new hand is taken on board in his place!

Not all the fishing off the New England coast is so dangerous. The mackerel and herring are taken closer inshore. In the waters off southern New England, the menhaden fisheries, also a branch of the shore fisheries, are carried on. The menhaden are not food fish, but are caught chiefly for the purpose of extracting, by mechanical processes, an oil which has a good commercial value. The shore fisheries are more largely devoted to the use of nets, while Bank fishing implies the use of trawls or hand-lines.

It is only within comparatively recent years that the fisheries of the Great Lakes and of the Pacific coast of the United States have assumed their present importance;

but they now form a great commercial factor in the fishing industry of this country. The lake fishing furnishes employment for more than ten thousand men, and, while the product has not the value of the fisheries of New England or the Pacific coast, it has a total value of more than $2,500,000 annually. One curious feature of the lake fishing is the way in which the yield of fish varies in different years. The sturgeon catch, for example, seems to be getting smaller every year, but more herring are caught now than were taken twenty-five years ago. The lake fishing is not so dangerous an industry to the fishermen as Bank fishing.

The Pacific coast fisheries are of great importance commercially, and the most important branch is that of salmon fishing. The market value of canned salmon, put up on the Pacific coast every year, is about twice that of the entire annual product of the lake fisheries. Strange to say, since the canners began putting up the blue-back salmon the supply of the fish has increased in a notable way. Only naturalized or native Americans may become fishermen under the laws of Oregon and Washington, so that the salmon fishing is a "home industry." Gill-net fishing is the most common, but seines are used near the mouth of the Columbia River. "Fish wheels" have recently come into use, but there is still a strong public feeling against those queer-looking contrivances.

Of course this outline of the fishing industry is of general rather than particular scope. The fisheries of the Gulf and of the interior of the United States are of less commercial importance than those already described, and therefore have not been given particular mention. Perhaps when the work of the Fish Commission has been in progress for a few more decades the lakes and rivers everywhere throughout the country will teem with fish to a value of many millions of dollars. Already it is possible to say that the Fish Commissions of the federal and state governments have done a work of great value. To attempt to give an idea of the work of the commission at Washington, with its branches throughout the country, would require an entire article. There is hardly a well-settled section of this country where the aid of the state or federal Fish Commission has not been invoked. Even from the bare standpoint of dollars and cents the work of these commissions has been of value to the whole country.

The fishing industry of the United States, as one may infer from the short sketch which is here given, is one of the most diversified of American industries. It has played an important part in the history of every epoch of this country. The fishermen have fought the battles of their country on the sea. Even to-day they are facing death in order that the markets next week or next month or next year may have their usual supply. They are, as a class, brave and resolute; and for their part in the past and in the present in the service of the people of this country they receive pay much smaller than that earned in far less dangerous trades.

COMPENSATION.

BY ANNA LEMIRA MOORE.

AH, well! If all our loss should prove a gain
To others here, or in the world beyond—
If we could know that every precious bond
That breaks 'neath life's inevitable strain
Would bind another's wound, thus soothing pain;
We could, with joy, forsake our dream most fond
Unto that end, and to fate's call respond,
Nor deem our loss a sacrifice, or vain.

OHIO IN NATIONAL AFFAIRS.

BY CHARLES M. HARVEY.

ASKED by an acquaintance on the day of the opening of the Democratic National Convention of 1868 who he thought would be nominated for president by that body, Gov. James E. English, of Connecticut, himself an aspirant for the candidacy, answered: "I don't know which Ohio man will get it." The reference was to George H. Pendleton and Chief Justice Salmon P. Chase. Pendleton had been more conspicuously mentioned in connection with the candidacy than any other man, and in the convention he led all his rivals for many ballots. Chase was then popularly supposed to be drifting away from the Republicans back to the Democratic party, to which he originally belonged, and for several months before the convention his name had been coupled with the nomination. He himself drew up a declaration of principles on the basis of which he might accept the candidacy. Some persons—Governor English probably among them—thought there was a chance for Chase to be brought forward as a "dark horse," after the other aspirants had exhausted themselves, and carry off the prize. A certain Ohioan then in New York, the meeting-place of the Democratic Convention of 1868, whose name was as well known to the country as either Chase's or Pendleton's at that day, also thought the contest for the nomination lay between these two. This was Clement L. Vallandigham, who had been the leader of the southern sympathizers, or "copperheads," during the war, and who, for treasonable utterances, had been sent into the Confederate lines in 1863. "In this fight between Young Greenbacks [Pendleton] and Old Greenbacks [Chase]," said Vallandigham, "I am for Old Greenbacks." Chase, as secretary of the treasury, was the reputed father of the Acts of 1862 and 1863, creating the legal tender notes, or greenbacks, which were originally redeemable in interest-bearing notes, and which were designed to be retired as early as practicable after the war, while Pendleton advocated the "Ohio idea," called thus from the state in which it first obtained prominence, of making the greenbacks the principal or sole currency of the country, and of paying all the government's obligations permanently in them which were not made by law specifically payable in coin. The "Ohio idea" became instantly popular among a certain element of both parties, an element, however, which was larger among the Democrats than among the Republicans, but which was chiefly confined to the West, and this gave Pendleton his great strength in the convention.

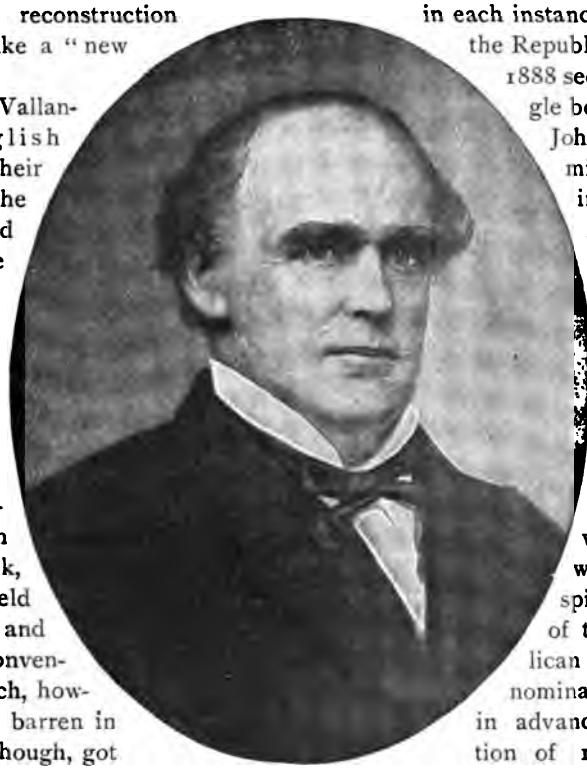
MANASSEH CUTLER.

Parenthetically it may be surmised that in advocating the nomination of Chase, who would represent the prompt and hearty acceptance of the war's results, Vallandigham

RUSSELL A. ALGER.

was beginning to ponder that Bolingbroke-Tory acquiescence of a century earlier in accomplished facts which he counseled in 1871, when he told his fellow Democrats of the nation to stop fighting the war amendments and the reconstruction policy and to make a "new departure."

However, both Vallandigham and English were mistaken in their assumption that the nomination would have to go to one or the other of the Ohio men. A New Yorker, Horatio Seymour, whose name had been seldom mentioned in connection with the nomination before the convention met, played the Polk, Pierce, and Garfield rôle of dark horse, and carried off the convention's honors, which, however, proved to be barren in his case. Ohio, though, got the consolation prize, for its "idea" forced itself into the platform, which was adopted before the nomination was made.



SALMON P. CHASE.

The dominance in Democratic National Conventions which New York accidentally obtained in 1868 she held afterward until 1896. In every Democratic Convention, however, except in that of 1888, when no other name than Cleveland's was presented, an Ohio man was conspicuously mentioned, and in most of them two Ohio men received votes. These men included Chase, William Allen, Allen G. Thurman, Henry B. Payne, George J. Hoadley, and James E. Campbell.

In Republican National Conventions almost from the birth of that party Ohio has been a favored state. In the year when the two Ohioans Pendleton and Chase appeared to some persons to be the sole actual contestants for the Democratic nomination, an Ohio man—General Grant, who was born in Ohio—received a unanimous nomination from the Republican Convention, and the compliment was repeated in 1872, an election by an overwhelming majority following in each instance. The contest in the Republican Convention of 1888 seemed to be a struggle between Ohio men—John Sherman, Benjamin Harrison (born in Ohio), William B. Allison (born in Ohio), William McKinley (who received votes but was not an aspirant), and Russell A. Alger (born in Ohio). Men from other states figured in the convention, but these were the most conspicuous. A mention of the leading Republican aspirants for the nomination a few months in advance of the convention of 1896 — McKinley, Harrison, Allison, Reed — would, if Reed's name be omitted, sound like a roll-call of distinguished Ohioans. The names of two Ohioans—John McLean and Salmon P. Chase—had been coupled conspicuously with the Republican candidacy in the first and second presidential years of the party's existence, 1856 and 1860. McLean, who was a justice of the Supreme Court, had been prominent in the list of presidential possibilities ever since 1840. Thomas Ewing and Thomas Corwin seemed for years to be in the "line of succession" to the Whig candidacy in the days of that party.

Every Republican president whom the country has had except Lincoln has been an Ohio man. Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Harrison, and McKinley were born in Ohio, and all except Grant and Harrison resided in that state at the time of their election. A

WILLIAM McKINLEY.

president who was elected by the Whigs, William Henry Harrison, was from that state, for, though born in Virginia, most of his public life was passed in Ohio and he lived in that state when elected. Ohio has wrested from Virginia the title of "mother of presidents."

Let us take a glance at the part in national affairs played by Ohio during the war. Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan, the three peerless soldiers of the secession conflict, were Ohioans. So were McDowell, the Union commander in the first important battle of the war, O. M. Mitchell, the astronomer-warrior, Buell, Rosecrans, the fighting McCooks, McPherson, Gilmore, and the Prince Rupert of the national armies, George A. Custer. In the cabinet Ohio had Chase, one of the greatest treasury chiefs whom the country has known, who, as Webster said of Hamilton, "struck the rock of the national resources and abundant streams of revenue burst forth," and Stanton, the mighty war minister, who, like the Carnot of French revolutionary days, "organized victory." In the Senate it had Benjamin F. Wade and John Sherman, and among its delegation in the House were John A. Bingham, Samuel Shellabarger, James A. Garfield, James M. Ashley, and Albert G. Riddle. These were all Republicans and national figures. Among its Democratic representatives in that chamber were three men as conspicuous as any of these—George H. Pendleton, Clement L. Vallandigham, and Samuel S. Cox. Bingham and Ashley were among the most prominent figures in the fight of Congress against President Johnson in 1867-68. Wade was president *pro tem* of the Senate at the time, and would, under the Law of 1791, which was in force until displaced by the presidential succession act of 1886 have gone to the presidency had Johnson been removed. Chase, as chief justice, presided over the Senate when that body tried the president.

What is the cause of the Ohio man's dominance? It is a matter of blood and

RUTHERFORD B. HAYES.

HENRY B. PAYNE.

location. The former comes through the mixture of the best races of New England, the Middle States, and Virginia, and the latter is the result of the situation of the state on the border-line between the East and the West, the North and the South. The earliest and the best of the emigrants from Massachusetts, Connecticut, and New York, seeking homes in the West, settled in Ohio. Many of them had been soldiers in the War of Independence, and were hardy, resolute, intelligent, and resourceful. Most of these went to the new land under the auspices of the Ohio Immigration Company, whose directing spirits were Rufus Putnam, Benjamin Tupper, Samuel Parsons, and Manasseh Cutler, the first and second of whom had been soldiers in the French and Indian War and had fought all through the Revolution, rising to the rank of brigadier-general in the latter struggle. Parsons and Cutler had also been officers in the revolutionary army, and were prominent in politics. Cutler drafted for Nathan Dane the Ordinance of 1787 for the government of the Northwest Territory, of which Ohio was a part.

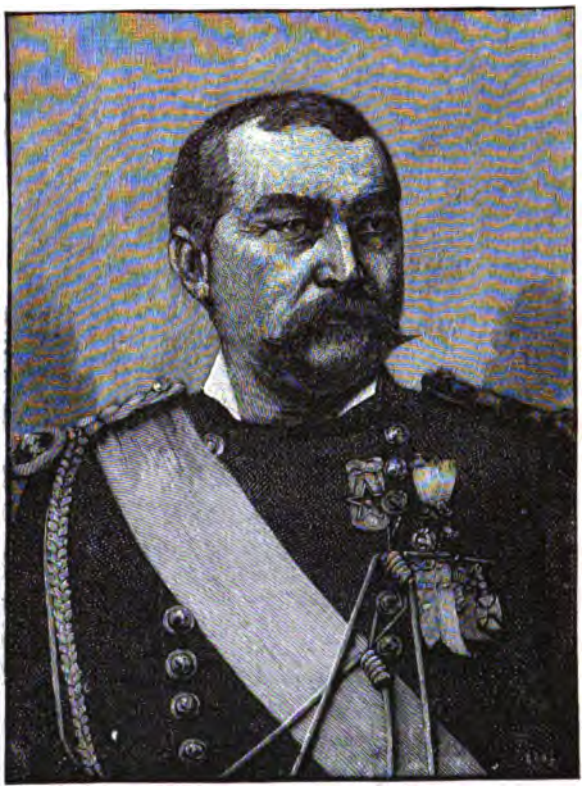
Very nearly all the early immigrants to Ohio were natives of the country. In physical, mental, and moral attributes they were much superior to the average of the new settlers in the West in the present day. They brought the best of their institutions with them to their new home and adjusted them to their surroundings. The New England town-meeting system, which had nurtured a populace better trained in the art of government than was ever found elsewhere outside of the Athens of Pericles, was domiciled in northern Ohio, and it produced the same results in civic virtue, independence, resourcefulness, and individuality as in its earlier home. Thus, by a sort of natural selection, the Ohio man became, as it were,

> heir of all the ages, in the foremost files of time.

In the manner of her creation Ohio dif-

BENJAMIN HARRISON.

fered from the older members of the sisterhood of states. The status of the thirteen original states and of the three earliest accessions to their number—Vermont, Kentucky, and Tennessee—was in the beginning in doubt. In the case of Ohio, however, which was the first part of the Northwest Territory that was settled, and the first part that was admitted to statehood, the design to create a state was obvious and avowed from the beginning. The same, to be sure, has been true of all the succeeding states.



GEN. PHILIP H. SHERIDAN.

Ohio's independence and individuality are shown by her propensity to cut out new paths for herself in politics without any particular regard to her neighbors' course, or of her own course at an earlier day. These qualities are strikingly shown in her attitude toward the great parties. In politics she was Democratic at first, then National Republican, afterward Whig, and subsequently Republican. She was Democratic at the outset because the Democracy at the time of her admission to the Union, 1802, was the only party which had a grip on the present and a claim on the future, the Federalist party being then in a dying condition. Her devotion to the policy of internal improvements and her leaning toward protective tariffs, both of which were championed by the National Republicans, impelled her to give her electoral vote in 1824 to Henry Clay, a leader of that party, and when the contest went to the House of Representatives, in the absence of a majority for any of the aspirants, her vote in that body went to Adams, another National Republican, Clay being out of the contest in the House, having been fourth on the list in the electoral college. Jackson's fight against the United States Bank sent Ohio back to the Democracy, but after Jackson's retirement she went to the Whigs, who inherited the internal improvement and protective tariff principles of the National Republicans, one of the elements which composed the Whig party. Near the end of the Whig party's days she went back to the Democracy again, but she joined the Republican party on its first appearance, and in presidential years has been true to it ever since.

But even when for a few years she was apparently constant to those different parties in succession, she showed her independence. Often while she was declaring for one party in presidential elections she was giving her favors to the opposite party in some of the intermediate years. Although she has been carried by the Republicans in every presidential canvass since their party was born, except that in 1892 she gave one of her twenty-three electoral votes to Cleveland, she kept one Democrat in the United States Senate constantly from 1869 to 1897, and for two years of this period both her senators were Democrats. More than once

in the past twenty-five years a majority of her delegation in the other branch of Congress was Democratic. Several times in this interval she has chosen Democratic governors.

Ohio's situation on the border-line between the East and the West, the North and the South makes her the theater in which the social and political forces dominant in the various localities meet and battle for the mastery. The Wilmot Proviso of 1846 is considered a turning point in politics. It put the slavery issue at the front and kept it there until the war, the Emancipation Proclamation, and the Thirteenth Amendment killed that institution. Four years before Wilmot introduced his amendment, however, an Ohio man, Joshua R. Giddings, in the case of the slaves which escaped from the bark *Creole*, made slavery a burning issue by presenting resolutions in the House reciting that slavery was an abridgment of natural right, that no law was violated by the *Creole's* slaves in escaping, and that their re-

HON. JOHN SHERMAN.

enslavement would be unconstitutional and unrepublican. The House, on motion of John Minor Botts, a Virginia Whig, passed a resolution censuring Giddings, whereupon he resigned, but was reelected by an overwhelming majority. This same Ohio man aided John Quincy Adams in part of the eight years' fight in favor of the right of petition, which ended in 1844 by the rescinding of the "gag rules."

GEN. WILLIAM T. SHERMAN.

Ohio contributed in 1844 the candidate for vice-president, Thomas Morris, to the first body of avowed anti-slavery men (the Liberty party abolitionists) who figured in American politics; other prominent Ohioans, the Tappans, Chase, and Joseph M. Root among them, were among that organization's leaders. These men were also conspicuous in the first party (the Free Soil party, formed in 1848) which had for its object the restriction of slavery to the region in which it then existed, and its exclusion from the territories. Ohio's distinguished son Chase, elected to the United States Senate in 1849, was the second man who entered that body with the avowed purpose of fighting the slave power, John P. Hale, of New Hampshire,

chosen two years earlier, being the first. In the first Congress in which the anti-slavery men were powerful enough to make their influence felt, that of 1849–51, Ohio contributed five—Lewis D. Campbell, W. F. Hunter, John Crowell, Joshua R. Giddings, and Joseph M. Root—of the nine members of that element which were in the House of Representatives. The passage of the Kansas-Nebraska Act, on May 30, 1854, gave the slavery issue portentous shape, destroyed the Whig party, and forced all the anti-slavery elements into combination under the Republican name. Ohio elected a solid Republican delegation of twenty-three members to the popular branch of Congress, chosen in the fall of that year before the name Republican had been generally adopted.

In all other movements in which the issue of morality was involved Ohio took an early and conspicuous part. She was one of the first states which lent a hand to Maine in the temperance crusade. The Prohibition party, which put the temperance issue in national politics, was founded in 1869. The first, second, and third national conventions of that party were held in Ohio, and Ohio contributed nearly half the vote the party attained in the country in its first national canvass, that of 1872. That Ohio is quick to register economic factors which are to assume national scope was shown in the case of the so-called "Ohio idea," mentioned in the first part of this article, which principle was the cardinal tenet in the creed of the Greenback party, and was a vital part of the articles of faith of the La-

JAMES A. GARFIELD.

ALLEN G. THURMAN.

bor and Populist parties. Ohio furnished the antithesis of that principle, for Rutherford B. Hayes' victory in the election for governor in 1875, in which he defeated William Allen, the leader of the cheap money forces, stopped the rise of the greenback wave and destroyed greenbackism's chances of forcing itself upon either of the two great parties.

Two reasons for Ohio's dominance in national affairs have been cited—the early admixture of the best blood of New England and the Middle States, which gives her sons resourcefulness, independence, and individuality, and location on the border-line of the four grand divisions of the country, which makes her responsive to the influences prevailing in the different sections and converts her into a battle-ground for the various social and political forces of the

nation. Her weight in the electoral college was also a contributory cause, as she was for many years the largest state in the country except New York and Pennsylvania. One other reason for her prominence was her October state elections (changed to November about a dozen years ago), which attracted the eager attention of the entire country every presidential year. These elections revealed the direction and strength of the partisan currents, had a powerful "moral effect" on the presidential contest three weeks later, and showed the importance of winning Ohio's support. All these influences combined to make Ohio a favored suitor for the prizes of national conventions.

ULYSSES S. GRANT.

Politics is not the only field in which Ohio has won distinction. She has, for example, contributed such men as Howells to literature, Edison to invention, Rockefeller to business, O. M. Mitchell to science, and Murat Halstead and Whitelaw Reid to journalism. It is in political affairs, however, that Ohio is preeminent. In these days, when hundredth, two hundredth, and four hundredth anniversaries of events appeal to the popular imagination, it is safe to predict that the centennial of the admission of Ohio to statehood, which will come in 1902, will command national attention.

AN OPTIMIST.

BY EMILY HUNTINGTON MILLER.

THIS I believe. In æons long gone by,
Instinct with God, and so athrob with life,
One gathered, from the elemental strife,
The dull, blind atoms, born at his command,
Ranged them in order, lying in his hand,
And watched them growing into harmony.

You say he tossed them idly east or west,
To whirl in any greedy, sucking tide?
Nay, but he holds them. When their courses wide
Run furthest from the sun, his eye can trace
The ordered cycle, marked through shining space,
With backward sweep that brings them to his breast.

A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE MOTHER FINDS HER BOY AGAIN.

THE lamp burned low in the chamber where the mistress lay. Edith, too miserable to be quiet, and untiring in her effort to be of service, moved noiselessly about the room. Hannah dozed beside the open fire, waking between whiles to weep. Without the door on a pallet lay Job, and away back in the kitchen Pete dreamed of his young master, just as he had done many a night of this dismal, dismal winter, often waked to wretched consciousness by his own sobs, as he relived that last day and again heard the loved voice say in almost its last words, "Always be good to Pete." At the quarters, too, the darkies were astir with anxiety, solemnly listening for a dreaded summons to the "big house." O God! the desolation of waiting for the death angel when his coming is so sure that one can almost hear the beating of his wings! He may not be victor over those he takes, but how vanquished are those he leaves!

In one of the cabins a group of the older servants were down on their knees, clustered about Uncle Isaac, who was praying with impassioned fervor for her they loved. His every appeal was punctuated by their cries and groans. A candle in one corner of the room threw the dusky faces into picturesque shadow, glinted from the gay bandanna-turbaned heads, and whitened the old man's hoary locks to the color of the snow.

"Oh, Gord!" he prayed, "we's yo' po' an' sinful chillun. Dah ain' nary one o' us kneelin' heah but whut's er mighty lean ole sheep. We's er-sinnin' eber minute an' we's er-sinnin' hahd—we ain' gwine 'spute dat. But, blessed Lahd, don' cha'ge it up ergin us! Ef yo'd er made us diffunt we wudn't be so mean. Oh, Lahd! don' look righ' down squah on us po' niggehs! Jes' squint er l'il', Lahd, ur dah ain' no libbin' powah whut kin keep us out o' hell. Oh, Gord! we does de bes' we kin an' sholy yo' ain' gwine 'spec' no mo'. Jes' hab mahcy on us an' bring all de proviguls home ergin!

"Dat's all we wan' fuh ahsebs, Lahd, an' sholy yo' ain' gwine 'fuse us dat. But oh, Lahd! we's got er mighty big favuh t' ask fuh mistis. Lahd, we 'low ez how yo' know all 'bout huh bein' sick, an' now Hannah she say ef de Lahd don' in'feah de mistis'll die 'fo' mahnin'. Oh, Lahd! fuh sake o' de Lamb o' Gord, come righ' down frum heab'n, an' ef she be er-crossin' ub de ribber jes wade righ' in an' brung huh back t' sho'. We done 'fess we's all ole black weddehs, but oh, Gord! yo' knows Miss Eb'lyn's de whites' lamb o' de flock. We 'lows ez how she's mo' lack er angul den ary angul in de skuy. Oh, Gord! sholy yo' ain' done t'ink how full yo' han's'll be widout mistis heah t' he'p yo' look ahteh t'ings. Has yo' fuhgot all dese yeahs mistis done took all de trouble o' dese niggehs off'n yo' han's? An' yo' don' know how mons'ous obstrep'ous dey is, an' dey say dey 'gwine be wussuh ef Mis' Eb'lyn ain' heah t' look ahteh 'em. Oh, Lahd! fuh de sake ub all de res' o' de wuhl whut's needin' yo' keer, leab huh heah t' obehsee dis paht o' muhl vineyahd! Oh, Lahd! please 'scuse me fuh tellin' uv yo' whutcher ough' do, but I's so feard yo's gwine mek er big mustake an' dah won' be nobody t' see whe'r we's got plenty t' eat an' wah. Fuh de sake o' all dese yeahs I's be'n er-sahbin' yo', an' fuh mahsteh, an' Missy Nell, an' Miss Edie, an' de fambly, an' jes' t' show whutcher kin do ef yo' hump yo'se'f, don' let ah mistis die tell ole Isaac's body lies mold'in in de tomb.

"Oh, Gord, I don' know no mo' ahgymints t' meet de case. But ef yo's still 'tahmined t' tek huh anyways, oh, Lahd,

fuh sake ub de Sabior don' 'fuse us dis: sen' down de shin'n'es' angul t' tote huh in 'is ahms righ' up t' de cou'ts ub glory! An' hab Mahs Ned er-waitin' righ' at de gate so she won' git skeered 'mong so many strangehs. An' let huh stan' righ' nex' t' de Sabior tell she git use' t' de crowd! Oh, Gord! fuh sake o' de Lamb what died t' sabe us, heah dis pra'h. Amen."

Such a heartfelt petition might have comforted Edith had she heard it. She was sitting beside the bed now, carefully watching each change in the wasted face. Even to her inexperienced eyes the ashy pallor was growing strangely ominous.

"Edith!" came in a faint whisper.

"Yes, dear." Unconsciously the girl employed the tone one uses to a child.

"Has he come?"

"No, not yet, but I'm sure he will be here to-night."

"It seems so long. He may not come in time."

"Yes, he will. Try to sleep and when you wake you will find him beside you. You are not suffering, are you, dear?"

"No, only so tired."

There was a short silence, during which the mistress lay as though asleep. Presently she put out her hand as if in search of some one, but finding the place vacant looked at Edith anxiously.

"What is it, dear cousin?"

"Where is—I want Nellie."

"I persuaded her to let Molly take her to bed. Hannah shall bring her right down."

The child nestled close to her mother, whose thin hand strayed lovingly over the round cheek. "My own little girl! My little Nell!" she said with the fondest tenderness.

Edith felt that she must scream or die. Would Captain Seddon never come? It had been ten days now since she wrote him and he ought certainly to have arrived unless some mischance had befallen. She had from the first been apprehensive of the dangers infesting his road home, and every day had seemed an age, with Mrs. Seddon fading away like a flower. For twelve hours she had seemed to live on the hope of seeing him, and if he did not come to-night Edith dared not think beyond.

Lying with Nell's face close beside her own, the gentle lady looked up at Edith and noticing her wet eyes said:

"Come sit on the other side, Edith."

She obeyed, and began to chafe the hand next her with her firm fingers.

"If only John were here I should be so happy. I think I can say now what I have wished to tell you many, many times, but it has always been hard for me to reveal what lies nearest my heart. I wish to thank you, Edith, for all your kindness to me these weary months. I do not know what I should have done without you. My Father is so kind—he gave you to me."

"Don't! please don't, Cousin Evelyn," sobbed Edith. "I have done so little for you, though I love you so much."

"I know you do, my darling. You have shown it in every way. I have taken note of all your sweet forbearance and unselfishness. God bless you, my child, and deal as tenderly with you as you have with me!"

She looked so like a saint as she turned her eyes heavenward that Edith unconsciously slipped to her knees. "If he would leave me you I could ask no more!" she cried.

"I would both go and stay, but my boy is beckoning me to him. I leave my loved ones to you. Do not part from little Nell till John comes home to stay, and always, dear, be a sister to her and a daughter to him. Show them the same kindness you have me—I could ask no more. And, Edith—my dear, dear Edith!—when the cruel war is over and Max comes back—Who is that? I think I hear John's step."

It was he. Edith hastened to meet him, holding up her finger warningly, but he entered as quietly as swiftly. One glance at his wife told him all.

"John! at last!"

With a feeble cry of joy she stretched out her hands. At one stride he reached and knelt beside her and clasped her in his arms. Nell did not awake and Edith slipped away. The hour was too sacred for a witness.

They were not conscious of the passage of time. She was perfectly content to be once more in the shelter of his strong arms; his heart was torn and throbbing with contending emotions.

As in a panorama he saw again every incident of their entwined history. Again she bloomed beside her father's hearth in old Virginia, the fairest flower his eyes had ever seen. He recalled with what unbounded pride he had won her love and made her his wife. With what gentle dignity and exquisite devotion she, who had seemed the merriest of butterflies, had fulfilled the exacting duties of her position! As the drowning relives his whole life in a moment, so the agony of this hour brought to his memory in swift review a thousand incidents of their happy wedded life he had thought forgotten. His very agony was held in abeyance till he had unraveled all the chain, from the first day to the last.

When he reached the end he shivered. And now she was dying! A groan, born of uncontrollable grief, broke the silence.

His wife heard it. "Dear John, forgive me!" she pleaded.

Forgive her! "Why forgive you, dear heart?"

"Because I had not strength to endure Ned's death. I tried so hard, John, but somehow I knew from the first how it would be. You know with what dread I always regarded the war. Something warned me of its disaster to us. Yet for your sake and Nellie's I wished to live."

"Don't say you cannot, Evelyn! My heart will break—my load is too heavy. Live, dear wife, and let me live too!"

She shook her head with a mournful gesture. "It is too late now, dear."

Ah, yes, too late! Her feet were already bathed in the waves of the silent river. Her husband saw it plainly, and, no longer able to repress his grief, wept in pitiful abandonment. Even this did not seem to pain her. Since she had gotten her heart's desire in his coming she was going fast—oh, so fast! Yet once again she roused—her work was not complete.

"Listen, John, for I am getting so tired. When Max comes home, be to each other as you were before. Don't let anything divide you. Poor boy! he could not see the question as we did. Forgive him, John. Promise me."

"Do not ask it, Evelyn, my love! Ask anything else, but not that! Oh, God, not that! with my boy's grave so new and my wife's heart broken."

"John, won't you try? At least promise me that—you will try."

Her dying eyes were relighted by the intensity of her holy desire. He could not refuse.

"I promise—God help me!"

"Thank you, dear. You and Edith can arrange all the rest. My soul is filled with joy. Can paradise be sweeter than this? Let us say our prayers together once more in the old way—then kiss me good-night."

He bent his head over hers, and silently, as they had prayed many times before, their petitions ascended to the Eternal: a cry from her for blessing on those she left; from him for strength to endure. Afterward he kissed again and again the white face and pallid lips, and then she fell asleep.

Holding her close to him he watched beside her till miles of travel overcame him and he too slept.

In the chill dawn Edith found them thus.

"She is better," she thought. "Oh, if his coming could make her well again! She has not slept like this for weeks!"

But when she drew close to the bed she saw.

"Cousin John," she cried, "oh, wake up! Hannah! Job! come quick! Oh, Cousin Evelyn! Cousin Evelyn! And I did not know!"

CHAPTER XVII.

A FRIEND IN NEED.

LATE in the afternoon of the same day a soldier in blue uniform entered Richard Allyn's law office.

"You air Mr. Allyn, I b'lieve," was the interrogative greeting.

"Yes."

"My name's Sam Smith. You've seed

me in the comp'ny, I s'pose, an' heerd tell uv me more'n once too, I guess."

"Your name and face are both familiar, Mr. Smith, but I can't place you exactly."

"Didn't you hear 'bout thet time Cap'n' Chester got wolloped at ther covered bridge?"

"Yes."

"An' 'bout thet feller whut wus captured the day afore an' tol' 'em er squad o' soljirs wus comin'?"

"Yes! yes! I know you now."

"I 'lowed thet little p'int 'u'd quicken your mem'ry. Thet give me er repertation, Mr. Allyn—ackchally er repertation, sir."

"You planned the ruse very cleverly."

"Lord, no! I never planned noth'n'. Cap'n, he done it all. Cap'n's dev'lish cute—an' dev'lish ev'rything else! I b'lieved ev'ry word I heerd him say 'bout them soljirs. I wus fooled ez bad ez anybody. Haw! Haw! Haw! You jest ought to er seed thet fat cap'n. He didn't have no more business managin' uv er comp'ny then er jack rabbit 'u'd have. Ef you'd had the hull Rebel army an' shuck 'em up in er bag you couldn't er foun' er man less sooted fur 'is place. But I ain't got no grudge ergin 'im—I'm 'bleeged fur 'im lett'n' me get erway so easy."

"You made your escape, didn't you?"

"Lord, yes! I jest clumb out o' the wagon in the dark while we wus on ther way to ther bridge. But I guess you air wonderin' what I come here fur?"

Allyn confessed some such question had arisen in his mind.

"Air you shore thar ain't no one in hearin' distance?" lowering his voice to a whisper.

"Perfectly. Anything you say will be heard by me alone."

"Wull—er—this is mighty ticklish business I'm on, an' these is mighty ticklish times, an' ef you don't min' me bein' so pertic'lar would you jest look out in thet hall to see thet nobody ain't list'nin'?"

Allyn complied, hardly knowing whether he ought to be amused or impressed at the man's caution. Such a rustic would be apt to overestimate the importance of any information he might obtain; yet, on the other hand, the business he had come on might be worth heeding. The times were pregnant with the unexpected. With this in mind he examined the hall, then locked the door and placed his chair close to his visitor's, who regarded these attempts at secrecy with evident satisfaction.

"You air er frien' to Cap'n Seddon, ain't ye?" was the opening question, which startled Allyn out of his preconceived opinions and made him thoroughly alive.

"Yes, I am. I admire and love him, though the division between us prevents my showing it as I should like."

"Them's my senterments to er T. Lord! Mr. Allyn, you don't know thet man like I do. Ef thar's anybody sick, thar he is too—leastwise he wus 'fore this war come on. Ef anybody's er-needin' uv anything he's shore to know it, and presently here he'll come with er nigger er-bringin' it. More'n once when Lizy an' me—Lizy, she's my wife—wus so pore we didn't know whar ther nex' meal wus comin' frum ther cap'n he he'ped us out an' kep' us frum—"

"But what has all this—"

"You jest wait—I'm er-comin' t' thet. Lord! man, I've got t' work up my nerve by tellin' uv all the cap'n's goodness, ur I'll never git over my skeer. By dog! when I think o' thet, an' this dev'lish plan uv Wire's, I'm bound t' blow on it ef he'd string me up nex' minute!"

"What is this plan?"

"Now you jest wait! I ain't worked up quite ernough yit. It ain't any fun t' run your head into er noose. No, siree! I never did hanker after no sech way uv handin' in my checks—nur bein' shot, nuther. But when I heerd Wire er-talkin', says I t' myse'f, 'You've got er chance now t' pay back part o' all them lifts the cap'n's be'n he'pin' you to all these years, an' ef you don't—'"

"In the name of God, come to the point at once, and tell me the danger threatening my friend!"

"You jest wait. You needn't be in sech er all-fired hurry. I'm most t' the p'int anyways. As I wus er-sayin', I jest kinder preached myse'f er little sarmon on ther

dooty uv gratertoode, an' detarmined I'd resk tellin' you, even ef Lizy hed t' look out fur number two."

Allyn could keep his seat no longer, but walked the room with impatient strides.

"You see," Smith continued, "I come near ez p'iz'n j'inin' the Rebels 'cause o' cap'n, but I never owned er nigger an' 'lowed I never could, so I'd jest be fightin' ergin my own intrusts. But, by Jinks! ef I'm er-follerin' ther same cause ez Cap'n Wire I ain't goin' t' set by an' see 'im murder er man whut hes kep' ther wolf frum my door fur ten year!"

"Your secret is out now—do tell it all as soon as possible."

"I'm ready. 'Twon't take long. 'Long erbout noon er yeller nigger whut b'longs t' Cap'n Seddon come t' headquarters an' wouldn't be put off with seein' nobody but ther boss. He tol' ez how his master was home, an' ef Cap'n Wire wanted t' get even fur all them insults he hed piled on 'im when he wus overseer, now wus his chance. I happened in jest then. All ther men say I'm er priv'leged pers'n sence ther covered bridge erfair, an' I must say cap'n's be'n mighty frien'ly with me—mighty frien'ly. But ef he hed any idee uv whut I'm doin' now—Lordy me! I'd be er goner, thet's all."

"For heaven's sake wait till to-morrow to tell me about yourself! Tell me now about Captain Seddon."

"I am er-tellin' ez fast ez I can. Give er man er little time, woncher? As I wus sayin', I happened in jest ez Yeller Dick wus finishin'. I don't b'lieve cap'n seed me. He wus actin' like some'n' crazy. I 'lowed I'd heerd men sw'ar, but I hedn't. No, siree! them oaths made me fair trem'le. Ther nigger went out, an' after while I slunk out too—I wus skeered. But I hed heerd whut I wanted to. He 'lowed he'd ketch the devil—meanin' Cap'n Seddon—an' he'd torcher 'im, an' roast 'im, an' cut 'im, an' then bury 'im erlive. An' he's ergoin' t' do it too ef he can. Six uv ther meanest, raskillest men is under orders t' go out erbout dark an' bring 'im in. I 'low he's feared t' send 'em in daylight."

"The very slaves on the plantation would rise in mutiny! What do you propose to do?"

"P'opose t' do! Lord! Mr. Allyn, don't you think I've did enough? I've resked my life t' tell you. Thar's Lizy—I've got t' consider her."

"Then you are willing to let me take the affair into my own hands and warn Captain Seddon?"

"Willin'! That's whut I come here fur. But afore you go any furder, Mr. Allyn, I want you t' promise me you won't never, ez long ez you live, let er livin' soul know I blowed on cap'n's plans. I ought t' er asked you at first, but I knew you wus er gentleman. Ef you air tempted t' tell, jest think uv Lizy. And I hope God Almighty'll strike me dead ef ever I give you erway."

"Your hand, Mr. Smith, on the bargain. I shall never breathe it unless you give me permission. And now I must be gone at once. It is past six. Heavens! if he should be lost through the delay! We have wasted valuable time."

They left the office immediately; the soldier to return by devious and unsuspected paths to the spider's web, the other to make hasty preparation for his ride to Heart's Delight. He too must exercise all possible caution. If he bungled, not only would it cost Captain Seddon his life, but he might lose his own as well. He left Jefferson by a road leading directly away from his destination, purposing by a wide detour to approach by an unfrequented way. He rode with the wind's speed. As the twilight purpled into darkness and a ghostly silence enveloped prairie and woodland his anxiety grew. The irony of fate, which made him, the devoted Unionist, risk his life to save an implacable foe to the Union, assailed him, but he did not falter. He was wrought to such a pitch that he was resolved to defend his friend's life with his own in open fight if Wire's men had arrived when he reached Heart's Delight.

While danger was drawing near on one side and on the other succor was making valiant efforts to be in advance, all uncon-

scious of evil the three—the master, Edith, and little Nell—were gathered about their dead in the silent chamber. They had wept their eyes dry, and now, denied the solace of tears, were attempting to console one another with tender words of her they loved. She looked like a white vision, her light hair blanched to almost the marble of her brow by the sadness of those last months; her sweet mouth was molded into a smile caught from supernal radiance. The longer they gazed the harder seemed the separation.

But the war which brings misfortune and bereavement forbade their bewailing; not even may sorrow be indulged unmolested. Just as the night set fairly in Job opened the door cautiously and softly called:

"Miss Edie! Miss Edie!"

Edith, supposing it to be some affair of the house, answered the call at once. To her surprise Job beckoned her into the hall and closed the door.

"'Fo' Gord, Miss Edie," he said anxiously, "I's mighty feared some'n' else gwine happ'n. Jes' now er man rid up t' de back fence an' called 'Hello.' 'Twa'n' light 'nough t' mek out 'is face, but he 'peah in awful hurry. 'Come heah quick, boy,' he say. 'Heah note fuh yo' mahsteh. Tell 'im he ain' got ary minute t' lose.' Den he gallop off fas' ez 'is hoss could trabel, an' I brung yo' de note fus, fuh feah ob 'sturbin' mahsteh."

Edith immediately carried it to Captain Seddon, who read it hurriedly and then thrust it into her hands. It read as follows:

Fly for your life! A detachment of Wire's militia is under orders to come at nightfall and take you to town. You know what his hatred for you is. A horrible death awaits you. I know what I am saying. Lose not a moment in getting as far away as possible.

The writer had concealed his identity well, but the sincerity on its face convinced both Captain Seddon and Edith that the contents of the note were true and that a friend had written it. She wrung her hands in terror, and at the same time implored him to be gone.

"I will not go," he said. "My hopes are dead—my heart lies there; let the carcass perish also."

"You know not what you are saying," she answered. "Sell your life as dearly as possible in the front of battle, but not this way—not in some horrible manner that man may devise."

He had laid his belt on a chair. He hastily examined the pistols, found they were ready for use, and buckled it round him. The act increased his courage, if such a thing were possible.

"Good God!" he cried, "do you think me craven enough to follow like a hound at Wire's bidding? I will sell my life dearly—let him look to the cost."

Edith caught him by the arm.

"Cousin John, for the love of mercy, hear me! No matter how many of these rabble you kill, there are others to take their places. Go back to your place in the army, where you are needed. Think of Nell—of all of us who love you and are looking to you, of the principle you are struggling for! Think of the boy out—" Her voice was lost in sobs. In a moment she had choked them back. "Think how bravely Ned died! What would he say to your remaining here? And that dear saint!—I wonder she does not rise from her coffin to bid you go."

He fell into a chair and buried his face in his hands. Every second seemed an age to Edith, unconsciously straining her ears to catch a sound of the men's approach. Still she waited.

Finally he raised his head. "Edith, you are right. It was a moment of weakness, but certainly I may be excused for anything to-day. I ought to go and I must."

Then his gaze fell on the still form and he groaned with anguish.

"How can I leave her thus! Oh, Evelyn! my precious, precious wife, how much easier to spend my life at once and then lie down by your side in sweet oblivion! To live is madness—to stay is cowardice. What shall I do?"

As though in answer to the question, Job hastily entered the room. Doffing his cap with apologetic air he said excitedly:

"I 'lows frum yo' looks dah wa'n't not'i'n

good in dat note. An' now dah's er passel er men comin' down de road. Dey's nigh er quahteh 'way, but I hearn 'em plain ez seein'."

Captain Seddon was himself again, calm, brave, resourceful.

"Run, Job, to the stable and saddle the swiftest horse there. Edith, I leave everything in your hands. I am imposing heavy burdens on you, dear child, but whom have I to call on but you? And my confidence in you is perfect. The time may be long before I return; my life is my country's. I shall get south if possible. There will be few mails; whenever there is a chance I shall write. The servants—the farm—everything is in your hands. See Mr. Dupey if you need advice, but I think Job will be sufficient. Good-by. God bless and keep you!"

Then taking Nellie by the hand he looked for the last time upon the face he held dearest of all the world. Sobered and made older by the wretched scenes of a stormy year, the child made no outcry, but clung to her father and sobbed far too pitifully for one so young. Captain Seddon was too overcome for coherent expression; only disconnected phrases escaped him. His attempts to console her ended in a sob. Then when he tried to charge her to be good for the dear mother's sake during his absence he found this also impossible. He could only weep and weep, and try to tear himself away, and weep again. Edith hid her eyes and waited. Unconscious of flying time and approaching enemy he stood till at last she recalled him:

"Forgive me, but you must hasten! I hear the men Job spoke of. They are at the stiles!"

It was fortunate the night was dark. As Captain Seddon ran out the rear door the soldiers were demanding admittance at the front. Sure of their prey, never dreaming that any warning could have been given, they had taken no precaution toward guarding the entrances, and were now expecting to spread consternation among the household by the violent pounding of their weapons on the door.

The master ran unperceived to the stable, where Job had his horse and arms in waiting. To entrust his tenderest interests to the servant's keeping, bid him a brief farewell, mount his horse, and ride off into the darkness was the work of a moment. But ere he had gone a hundred yards the animal shied violently, and his rider clearly perceived a man's figure outlined against the dark sky.

"Who goes?" he cried, drawing his pistol.

"'Tain' nobody but Pete, mahsteh," came the well-known voice. "Oh, mahsteh!"—and the poor fellow actually threw himself on his knees beside the horse and caught hold of the saddle-skirt—"Oh, mahsteh! lemme go wid yeh. Wid meh Mahs Ned in de grabe an' meh mistis in 'er coff'n, dah ain' no place heah fuh me. Ef yo'll lemme go I'll neber leab yo'. I'll nuss yo' ef yo' gits sick—I'll take de bes' keer ub yo' I kin. I'll die fuh yo', mahsteh, ef yo'll gimme de chance."

Ah, me! ah, me! Who that does not know personally can ever understand the attachment between the kind master and his slave? Some necromantic power seems to have forged an unbreakable chain that bound them infinitely closer than the mere nexus of owner and owned, and afforded a condition of slavery unlike anything the world had ever witnessed.

To the lonely fugitive master Pete's devotion was most sweet. It came as the slenderest sunbeam into a dark room. A longing to grant the request was evident in his tone as he replied:

"But you have no horse and I cannot wait. Anyhow the men would be searching the stable by the time you could get back."

"Hi, mahsteh, Pete ain' fuhgit dat! I's got meh hoss—Mahs Ned's hoss what yo' gimme, yo' know—tied t' de bushes heah."

The Confederacy needed fighters, not servants. A hardly perceptible indecision crossed the captain's mind.

"Fuh lub er meh young mahsteh, lemme go," the boy pleaded.

It was the irresistible appeal. Permission was quickly given, and away they rode, whither or to what destiny no man could tell.

When Edith heard the soldiers on the gallery she hastily locked the death-chamber, and with her arm thrown protectingly around Nell advanced to the front of the hall, while one of the servants unfastened the door. Half a dozen rude fellows stalked into her presence.

"We want to see the boss. We've got a little business to transact with him," said the leader with a leer at his comrades.

"Captain Seddon is not here," Edith answered quietly.

"Oh, come off now. We know all about the cap'n and his doin's. We don't intend no harm to you, young lady—just call him."

"Indeed, I tell you truly; Captain Seddon is not here. He was, but has gone away," was her positive assurance.

"Here, boys, two of you run around the back way to see that he don't get out there. You go too, Jack. Hurry to the barn. The rest of us will search the house."

Edith waited in the lower hall while they searched every room of the upper floor, examining every nook and cranny with the utmost scrutiny. When they came down stairs she had taken care to have all the doors thrown open except that of the room where the body lay, hoping thereby to divert their attention. It would be unendurable, she thought, for them to pollute the sanctity of this with their boisterous presence.

The plan seemed about to succeed, for in the long search this was overlooked, until one of the men exclaimed:

"By Jinks, here's a room we almost forgot!"

Edith was beside herself.

"I beg you not to go in there!" she cried. "I give you my word no living being is there."

Naturally her excitement and opposition intensified the men's vigilance. They had been told that Captain Seddon was at home and were ordered to arrest him; they knew nothing of the tragedy just enacted there. And now, when they had gone carefully through the outbuildings and the entire house except this room, without success, as a matter of course they concluded Captain Seddon was in concealment here.

Consequently she was savagely ordered to unlock the door. "And be quick about it—we haven't got no time for foolishness," accompanied the demand.

Still she hesitated, trying to frame a brief explanation of her objection to their entering; but before she could begin, at a sign from the officer two men threw themselves against the door with force enough to drive the screws from their sockets. With noisy tread and congratulations at the prospect of their search being rewarded they entered, and had almost reached the sheeted figure before they saw it. The most hardened nerves cannot unexpectedly behold death unmoved. All but one left the room as quickly as they had gone in. The one, somewhat more daring than the others, delayed long enough to lift the sheet to see if any one were in hiding beneath the coffin. Then he followed his companions.

"Ugh!" growled the leader when they stood again on the porch, "such a sight makes me creepy. Confound Wire for sending us here at such a time. It looks too as if the cap'n had got away. But if he's anywhere 'round we've got to find him. We'll pay for it if we don't."

At this juncture Yellow Dick, with officious interest, approached. "I 'low yo' be lookin' fuh Cap'n Sedd'n," he said.

The title he used was significant. To the trusty slave it is "mahsteh" to this day; the untrusty dropped the name before the Emancipation Proclamation.

"Yes," was the eager answer. "Can't you help us find him?"

"Yo'll hafter hurry. Him an' Pete's went by de souf road. I wur watchin' an' seed 'em, an' 'ud tol' yo' afo', but Job he wur watchin' me, an' Job's mons'ous strong w'en he git mad. But yo' kin ketch 'em yit ef yo' hosses is rale fas'."

Not a moment did they lose. To let their victim slip through their hands in this manner would be most culpable in Captain Wire's sight. In three minutes the whole party was in hot pursuit.

(To be continued.)

SHOULD THE GOVERNMENT ESTABLISH POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS?

BY CHARLES S. BURWELL.

POSTAL savings banks are not an experiment. The plan has been well tried and continues to be successful, not costly to the government to maintain, and highly advantageous to the people.

The first post-office savings bank was established in Great Britain in 1861, under the direction of Mr. Gladstone, then chancellor of the exchequer. Since then nearly all the leading nations of the world have established them, Belgium in 1869, Italy in 1875, France in 1881, Austria in 1883, Sweden in 1884, Hungary in 1886, and, more recently, Russia, Finland, Japan, and the Hawaiian Islands. They are also in successful operation in most of the British colonies, including Canada, New Zealand, Australia, and the Cape of Good Hope.

The proposition to establish such banks in the United States has been before Congress several times, but so far has received but slight support. Mr. Wanamaker, when postmaster-general, strongly recommended the adoption of this system by Congress, incorporating in his report for 1892 valuable statistics from European countries showing their success and popularity. Since then the plan has received the active support of many newspapers and societies, as well as of a number of influential men both in and out of Congress. It is understood that Postmaster-General Gary strongly favors the plan, and under his recommendation the present Congress will take up the question and a very strong effort will undoubtedly be made to pass a law establishing the system in the United States. In view of these facts the question, Shall the government establish postal savings banks? is worthy of most careful consideration.

In a general way the plan of the postal savings bank is, that such post-offices as the postmaster-general may designate shall accept deposits in sums of one dollar or more and provide each depositor with a pass-book in which deposits and payments are recorded. The governments shall take charge of these deposits, paying for them such interest as the law shall provide, two per cent being commonly suggested by most advocates of the system, and the money shall be subject to withdrawal at any time, under proper regulations. In this way it is intended to offer facilities for saving to communities not now reached by existing banks nor in the nature of things ever likely to be, except by some such plan as this.

In this country eighty per cent of the savings banks and savings deposits are in the New England States and New York. Throughout the West and South, except in the larger places, it is impossible for private enterprise to furnish savings facilities sufficient to meet the needs of the people. By an investigation made under the direction of the postmaster-general in 1892 the distances of savings depositories from post-offices (which are intended to be centrally located) were ascertained to average as follows: in the New England States, ten miles; in the Middle States, twenty-five miles; in the Southern States, thirty-three miles; in the Western States, twenty-six miles, and in the Pacific States, fifty-two miles. This is a remarkable showing and clearly indicates the need of bringing some safe and convenient depository within reach of these people.

The total number of depositors in savings banks in the United States are now a little over five million, or about one in fourteen of the population. In England one person in seven is a depositor in the postal savings bank, to say nothing of the depositors in private savings banks, who probably are as numerous in proportion to the population as in this country. The fact that the bulk of the savings deposits in this country is in New England and New York is accounted for by some on the ground that the people

there are more economical and thrifty than in the other parts of the country; but the advocates of postal savings banks assert that the people of the South and West would be equally saving were they given like opportunity and encouragement.

The comptroller of the currency reported last year 988 savings banks—certainly an inadequate number for the needs of the people of this country. In Great Britain there are more than ten thousand post-offices, and in France over eight thousand, that receive deposits as agencies of the postal savings bank.

The remarkable growth of our postal money-order system (there were over fifty-two million transactions, aggregating $200,000,000, last year) indicates the ease with which the post-offices could be adapted to this work. This would also reduce materially the cost of inaugurating an entirely new system. In this connection it is worthy of notice that in 1895 France handled in its post-office savings banks 2,500,000 accounts, at a profit of $170,000, after paying three per cent interest, and the English department the same year handled 6,500,000 accounts, paying two and one half per cent interest, and realized a surplus of $83,000.

The establishment of postal savings banks in this country, then, would be made in the expectation that certain very positive and beneficial results would follow. Postmaster-General Gary has given this clear exposition of these benefits, in his report just made public:

A large amount of money is undoubtedly secreted by people who have little or no confidence in ordinary securities and monetary institutions organized by private citizens. It is dead capital; but if its owners could be inspired with absolute confidence in the security of an investment, it is altogether probable that the bulk of this fund would find its way into the channels of trade and commerce. If the government undertook this task the service would undoubtedly be gladly accepted by the people. Their faith in the government is unbounded. Their little savings, which separately could hardly be put out at interest, would amount in the aggregate to a sum that could be invested to their advantage. It would tend to cultivate thrift in a large class, who would realize the advantage of depositing their savings with the government instead of wastefully and uselessly expending them. It would tend to better citizenship, bringing into closer relationship the government and its citizens, and developing practical and enduring patriotism. This growth of patriotic sentiment and good citizenship constitute a powerful appeal to statesmanship to make a way for these beneficent consequences.

A postal savings system is an accomplished fact in nearly every country in Europe, the British dependencies of both hemispheres, and even in Hawaii. In Great Britain seven million depositors have upward of $550,000,000 in savings accumulated during thirty-five years; and in ten years fewer than ten thousand Hawaiian depositors saved nearly $1,000,000. Canada, whose savings banks in 1867 held less than $3,500,000 as the accumulations of a century, inaugurated a system of postal savings depositories in 1868, and in twenty years the deposits exceeded $22,000,000. These vast accumulations have been made with the least possible loss to the governments, which guarantee their repayment, and with a minimum of cost to the millions of depositors. At the end of 1895 Great Britain, after paying interest at the rate of two and one half per cent and covering all losses incurred, held $3,500,000 in undivided dividends.

More than a third of the postal savings accounts in European offices are held by minors, and over two thirds by the most humble callings. It is essentially the bank of this class. Postal savings would not conflict with the savings banks, but would encourage savings rather than accumulations. The conversion of money-order offices into savings depositories would soon afford infinitely more facility for receiving interest-bearing deposits than the interest-paying banks do now. The most aggressive opponents of the plan are among the private institutions engaged in somewhat similar enterprises, though associations of the larger cities recognize in it a valuable feeder to the financial currents of the country. Security, and not the rate of interest, is the primary and essential condition of such a system; and bonds of states, counties, and municipalities and real estate furnish an illimitable field.

There is some opposition to the system on account of what is claimed would be the unfair competition it would offer to the present banking institutions, especially the savings banks. The general testimony, however, from other countries is that private banks have nothing to fear from the postal savings plan. The manager of the department in France says: "The operation of these banks relate principally to small amounts, and experience has shown that they do not in the least interfere with the development of private banks which receive

larger deposits." The vast majority of private banks have their depositors among persons of greater means, as is plainly shown by the fact that, while the seven million depositors in the English postal savings banks average $70 each, the five million in the savings banks in the United States average $370.

There are difficulties in the way of the successful working of the system in this country, and the plan has and will have many decided opponents. The government in undertaking the care of millions of dollars of the small savings of the people assumes a great responsibility in guaranteeing, as it must, the return with interest of every dollar deposited. This compels the government either to conduct a safety deposit business at great expense, which expense the people must pay, or to go into the banking business as much as do the savings banks and trust companies, in order to make the system pay its own way.

How much money would such a system be likely to accumulate? Unfortunately we have no statistics that show the actual deposits in the banking institutions of the country that are purely savings. There are now in the United States about a thousand savings banks, having an aggregate deposit of about $2,000,000,000. The individual deposits of national banks are about $1,600,000,000, of state banks and trust companies about $1,200,000,000. I take these figures from the last report of the comptroller of the currency, that of 1896.

Of course but a small percentage of the deposits in national and state banks and trust companies are savings deposits, but when we add this percentage to the $2,000,000,000 of actual savings deposits we may realize the enormous amount of such funds there are in the country. In this connection it is well to remember that eighty per cent of the savings bank deposits are held in New England and New York, and that ninety-seven and one half per cent of this amount is in balances of $500 and under.

This enormous sum of over $2,000,000,000, taken in connection with the fact that so large a proportion is held in the Eastern States, and that it is made up to such an extent of comparatively small deposits, would seem to indicate that postal savings banks having the government guaranty of deposits, reaching all parts of the country and especially those portions not now provided with savings bank facilities, would in a short time accumulate an enormous deposit.

I have asked the question, How much? But any estimate is a matter of speculation. If the money hoarded in stockings, under hearthstones, and in other secret hiding-places would average $10 *per capita* in the country, that would make $700,000,000.

I have given these figures to show the possibility of gathering a great amount of money in the postal institution, for therein lies the greatest danger, as I apprehend, in the working of the system in this country. What shall be done with the money when it comes into the hands of the government? We are at a disadvantage here with European nations. They are all in need of money and their government securities offer a ready and convenient investment of all their savings deposits. Our national interest-bearing debt is only $800,000,000, and is already absorbed, and while at first the funds of the postal savings banks might be invested in government bonds, bought in the open market at rates that would warrant two per cent interest, the time must shortly come when wise provision must be made for other sources of investment. The danger here is that the possession of so much money will invite unwise expenditures and schemes, many such having already been proposed. We must not forget what every careful banker recognizes, that with every depositor there must sooner or later come a day of settlement.

These to my mind are very grave difficulties, for which I offer no solution. The establishment of any new system of such magnitude and importance will inevitably meet with many objections and present numerous difficulties inseparable from constructive legislation. But in a matter presenting so many possibilities of benefit to such great numbers, and so evidently needed

in a very large portion of our country, wise statesmanship should be able to provide a law that would minimize the dangers suggested without destroying the advantages of the system. Believing, therefore, that postal savings banks would supply a public need that cannot in the nature of things be supplied by private enterprise, would promote thrift and good citizenship, and would thus prove a great boon to millions of our people, I think the government ought to establish postal savings banks under the operation of a carefully prepared and efficient law.

WHO WILL EXPLOIT CHINA?

BY RENÉ PINON.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

FOR this gigantic operation several European, American, or Asiatic states are in rivalry. Our object in this study will be to indicate their respective pretensions and consider their powers and their chances of success.

In the first rank, by the antiquity of its relations with China and the continuity of its political aims, appears Russia. From the time of Peter the Great, Russian statesmen, with a profound conviction, with a religious faith in the future, have sought for the domination of their race upon the immense continent which unrolls its infinite plains from the Baltic to the Sea of Japan.

"The politics of great states," said Napoleon I., "is in their geography." It is geography which has created for Russia the imperious necessity of reaching an open sea. Since Peter the Great, to give to the Muscovite plains an outlet to the sea, an issue to the rest of the world, has been the constant care of the diplomacy of the czars. Checked in the West by the German power, in the North by the ice, in the South by the "eastern question," they have sought in Asia what nature and men refused them in Europe. Two routes were opened to them, to the Indian Ocean by way of Afghanistan, to the China Sea by way of Manchuria. The jealousy of England closed decidedly to Russian expansion the route by way of the Indian Ocean, and Russia turned resolutely toward the far East.

Little by little she surrounded the Middle Kingdom with an immense line of circumvallation from Hindu Kush to the frontiers of Korea. In 1858 she occupied the territory of the Oussuori and founded upon the sea of Japan the port of Vladivostok. At last Russia reached the sea. She had a port free from ice during eight months of the year. This was a great step taken, but Vladivostok is blocked during four months of winter; it opens upon a sea closed by straits impracticable or of which the banks are Korean or Japanese. Suddenly Russia busied herself gaining outlets to the ocean. In 1875 she made the mikado accept the exchange of Saghalin Island for the Kuriles, the substance for the shadow. In 1876 she led him to renounce all sovereignty over Korea in exchange for the opening of a Korean port (Fusan) to Japanese commerce. Thus there was already revealed the importance of the Korean question. In 1886 Russian vessels and troops occupied Port Lazareff. Installed there, the Russians at last possessed a port accessible all the year, and they were masters of Korea. But the English were watching and by occupying the islet and bay of Port Hamilton compelled the evacuation of Port Lazareff.

Russia now comprehended that she could neither make any progress nor even maintain her positions in the far East as long as she did not have the shores of the Pacific connected with her European possessions by a railroad. From this day the idea of the Trans-Siberian Railway was adopted; the preliminary studies commenced. At the same time the government gave heavy bounties to the navigation company connecting Odessa

with Vladivostok. In 1891 the czarevitch Nicholas laid at Vladivostok the first tie of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. Work on the road has been pushed forward and the Russians expect that before the close of 1898 one will be able to traverse all Siberia by steam.

Like Russia, England felt the need of opening toward the Chinese seas a shorter way than that of Suez, and one entirely British. She undertook the Trans-Canadian Railway and created a line of navigation from Vancouver to Hongkong. The affair of Port Lazareff was, then, the determining cause of the construction of the two great iron ways which traverse, one all America, the other all Asia.

The Chino-Japanese War modified profoundly the respective situation of the rivals for gain in China. Before this war Russia and England alone prepared in silence for the struggle for China; the treaty of Shimonoseki almost decided the question in favor of the third pilferer, Japan.

It was the English who in the first half of the century succeeded first in opening several Chinese ports to commerce. But the admirable English diplomacy, so disciplined and supple, did not succeed in the far East. It made too sudden leaps, which disconcerted and frightened Chinese immobility. During the Chino-Japanese War, England by the fluctuations in her policy ended in losing her credit in the far East.

By geography, by customs, by his good qualities and his defects, the Russian is the most oriental of occidental people ; between him and the man of yellow race there is no violent contrast. Much more than British haughtiness, Muscovite pliability and patience are capable of inspiring confidence in Chinese apathy. There has been no violence, no cannon-shots in the pacific relations of China with its neighbors of the North. Since the treaty of Nerchinsk (1689) the political relations have always been amicable, and yet the encroachments of Russia have been incessant. With marvelous tact the diplomacy of the czars has always felt the precise limit where it was advisable to stop in order not to awaken the irritability and distrust of the government of Pekin. To-day Russian counsels are listened to, if not as those of a master, at least as those of a guardian. At the beginning Russia endured consenting to many concessions; the emperor of China looked on the czar as a vassal. The Russians admired these pretensions and consented to humiliating treaties; they awaited the propitious hour. Throwing forward daring officers, ready to disavow them in case of failure, to sustain them if they succeeded, they arrogated to themselves the right of navigating on the Amour, and annexed all the left bank of that river. Shortly afterward the territory of the Oussouri was occupied and Russian diplomacy profited by concessions granted to England and France to have the legitimacy of its new acquisitions recognized. Yet the Muscovite policy has always been to have the integrity of the Chinese Empire respected, to baffle all the projects of dismemberment plotted by the English.

The intimacy of China and Russia has most profound causes. The Chinese have a very distinct feeling of their interests. Between Russian and Chinese interests there is no opposition; there is similitude. England, the United States, Germany, and France have only one object: to make of China an immense market for the product of their industry, to impose upon it, by force if need be, their merchandise. On the contrary Russia and Japan seek to facilitate the exportation into Europe of Chinese products. Russia with its railroad will be the middleman between producing China and consuming Europe. The Russian provinces produce nothing which China furnishes; they have every advantage in being put in contact with the innumerable population of the Celestial Empire. The immense current of exchanges which will be established between China and Russia by the new railroad will carry life and prosperity into the Siberian steppe. In exploiting China the Russians will with the same stroke throw Siberia open to improvement; they will rapidly make it one of the greatest centers of agricultural production in the world. In the economic development

of China, Russia has nothing to lose and everything to gain.

In Asia Russia has encountered her most dangerous adversary as regards China—Japan. The Japanese owe to the Chinese their civilization; they have great affinities with them. The complicated ensemble of ideas, instincts, fashions of being, acting, and thinking which constitute the Chinese soul is for us an undecipherable enigma; the Japanese have the key of it. If not of the same race, at least of the same family, they have the superiority to their yellow brothers which a more elevated character and more open intelligence give.

The Japanese does not hate the Chinaman; he considers him as a relative too slow to spring into the way of progress, too apathetic to drive out the Europeans who take advantage of him. He wishes to bring this deluded brother to his senses, to communicate to him his own energy, vitality, and faith. War could break out between the two peoples, but it could not form a chasm between them. Japan, indignant at Chinese inertia, took upon itself the task of freeing the yellow race from the humiliating tutelage of the Europeans, of snatching from westerners the benefits of exploiting the Orient. To reach this result it took the right means: China closed its doors, Japan threw its own open. It prepared to fight us with our own weapons; it became for Russia the most dangerous of adversaries.

By its geographic situation and its wealth the Korean peninsula was naturally the first object of litigation between Japanese and Russians. On the two banks of the Korean strait are found the same cultivations, products, and climate. The ports of Japan receive and distribute to the whole country Korean rice and salted fish. Economically, then, Japan and Korea are closely united. Up to the Chino-Japanese War the rivalry between Russia and Japan manifested itself almost solely in Korea. Yet the question did not appear insolvable. At the commencement of the war of 1894 the government of the czar was negotiating with that of the mikado for an eventual partition of the Korean peninsula. Russia would have had the east side, that is to say, an open port and one bank of the strait, while to Japan would have been restored the west part, productive of rice, and the island of Quelpaert. Whether the negotiators would have had the good will to come to an agreement the war did not permit us to know.

.The details of the struggle between China and Japan are known. Intoxicated by success, finding a China even more decomposed and friable than they had imagined, the victorious Japanese asserted the pretension not only to make Korea independent under the tutelage of Japan but to occupy southern Manchuria with the peninsula of Leao Tong and Port Arthur, to march upon Pekin, and to go and declare their triumph to the eyes of the Chinese in the very capital of the Son of Heaven.

This time Japan went beyond bounds, and the Russians roused themselves. Noiselessly, by utilizing the lines of the Trans-Siberian, they concentrated great military forces in the province of the Amour, and they sent into Chinese waters an imposing squadron composed of their best ships. The Japanese were alarmed; they had to retard their march, renounce the triumphal journey the mikado was going to make to Port Arthur, and accept the overture of pacific negotiations. Great were the pretensions of the vanquishers. They claimed the occupation of Manchuria and of Leao Tong with Port Arthur. Russia, Germany, and France opposed their veto, and the same day they gave to the government of the mikado the friendly counsel to renounce pretensions which might bring a general conflagration into the far East. Japan hesitated: it cost something to renounce advantages so dearly purchased, but the greater part of its army was in Manchuria, victorious but worn out, and war would have exposed Hondo and especially Yezo without defense to a disembarkment of the Russians. In spite of England's encouragement to the contrary, Japan accepted the conditions imposed by the powers. By the treaty of Shimonoseki the country obtained only Formosa and an idemnity of about $298,-

500,000. It had to renounce all territorial acquisition in China or even in Korea. Thus the real conqueror was Russia, who posed as the guardian of China. She closed the continent to Japanese influence; as to her two European rivals, Germany and England, she had made use of one and had dealt a decided blow to the other's credit.

China owed her safety to the support which Russia had given or had had given to her. She had neither the time nor the means to show herself ungrateful. In November, 1896, a treaty was finally ratified between Russia and China which gives brilliant satisfaction to the ambitions of the Russians. What a war would not have been able to assure them they obtain without striking a blow. Militarily and commercially they become masters of North China and Manchuria. The government of the czar engages to aid the Chinese to restore and fortify the ports of Leao Tong peninsula, Port Arthur, and Talienwan. In exchange the Russian navy will freely use the roadstead and arsenal of Port Arthur and will be able to establish there a depot for coal, provisions, and arms, and in case of war troops can be concentrated there. At last the Russians possess a port on the open sea always free from ice! To protect this position Russia also received the right to lease for fifteen years the magnificent Bay of Kiao Chou south of Cape Shantung, and in case of war to occupy it militarily. This great roadstead, fortified and made the winter station of the Russian fleet, will have in the future an immense strategic importance.

Kiao Chou and Port Arthur will be the two solid bases of Russian power in China. Port Arthur will be directly connected by railroad with Siberia and St. Petersburg. Russia has also been given other important concessions concerning railroads which will throw a large part of the trade of the Orient into her hands.

In fact only France and Russia of the European nations have obtained material advantages in China; it seems as if they have gained in prestige all that England and Germany lost. But the French interests in the far East are only secondary, and Russia would seem to have conquered definitely in the struggle for the exploitation of China if she did not see herself brought face to face with a young and dangerous rival, Japan.

As those of Germany in 1870, the triumphs of Japan have been the prelude and the cause of a marvelous development of all the living forces of the country. The Japanese have known how to make use of the indemnity of the Chinese War—as the Germans of our *milliards*—for a prodigious increase of their military and economic power. After the treaty of Shimonoseki Japan began to work with the ardor and the faith which give success. "The Japanese industrial world changed face completely. The spirit of commercial enterprise, urged on by optimistic people, swelled with national pride, gained ground." The government instigated and seconded private initiative; from 1896 to 1906, it looks forward to an expense of about $69,950,000, under the form of subsidies of all sorts to commerce and industry, to aid the economic progress of the country.

Success has responded to the efforts of the Japanese; in Korea their commerce has so far supplanted Chinese commerce that the China Merchant Company no longer send their ships into Korean ports; Japanese imports there amounted in 1894 to £12,500, in 1895 to £78,000.

The Japanese have carried their new activity into China itself; not content with forming relations of exchange with their neighbors, they have gone to develop the riches of the Celestial Empire on the spot. Travelers, merchants, engineers have overspread all China, insinuating themselves into the most backward provinces. Everywhere understood and everywhere well received because of analogy of civilization and identity of writing, they have studied, taken inventories, computed the riches of the Middle Kingdom, and sought for means of carrying off part of it. The young Japanese have almost all been initiated in Europe to our processes of civilization, and

have been accustomed from youth to direct, according to new methods, great commercial companies, industrial and agricultural undertakings, hence they have creative energy and the spirit of enterprise. Very quickly they began to establish factories in China.

The Chinese, impressed with the success brought back to them by these yellow brothers, until recently so scorned and despised, seem ready to let themselves be guided by their conquerors. Reconciled by a common hatred for Europeans, Chinese and Japanese come to an understanding in order to take on economic ground a brilliant revenge for past humiliations. The Japanese will play in China the rôle of the English in India; scattered throughout the country, they will everywhere be masters and directors; with Chinese workmen they will employ Chinese capital, they will make of the entire country a center of intense production. But if they modify the physiognomy of the soil they will not change the character of the inhabitants. The Chinese will assist, interested but apathetic, in the transformation of their ancient fatherland; they will disdain to study for themselves the usages and the civilization of the "barbarians"; they will let themselves be led by their yellow brothers, and the direction the Japanese will know how to impose upon them will be so gentle that they will not awaken from their eternal slumber.

This improvement of China by the Japanese will be an accomplished fact at the hour when, in five years, Russian railroad coaches penetrate as far as Hankow. There is no doubt that the government of the czar obtains from the Son of Heaven all the necessary concessions for exporting by the Trans-Siberian Chinese merchandise and products. It will come about thus that in developing Chinese production the Japanese will work for the Russian railroads. The remuneration of the enormous capitals engulfed in the execution of the great Asiatic way can only be assured by a considerable commercial movement between China and Europe. The more Japanese activity will make China produce, the greater will be the prosperity of the Trans-Siberian.

To carry to the Russians this remunerative transit the subjects of the mikado are developing their navigation companies. Russian railroads and Japanese boats will ruin all the English or German enterprises and defy all rivalry. They will respond to different economic needs; the prosperity of one will not be the ruin of the others; they could coexist without destroying each other; they will create rivalry, but nothing indicates that they should make war.

Hence does not the reciprocal animosity which divides Japanese and Russians proceed from an exaggerated and misplaced self love? Is it not the result of a veritable misunderstanding?

If Russia and Japan allow armaments and ruinous military expenses to allure them down-hill and wish to expel each other from the Chinese markets, they will not only miss their aim but they will open the door to foreign ambitions. Japan will be stopped in its economic flight; Russia will lose the opportunity to settle in other parts of the world questions vital for its future.

In these circumstances the rôle of France is marked out: to open the eyes of the two rivals, to show them the danger and the remedy, to perform once more in the far East the work of peace and concord. We are joined to Russia by close friendship, and with Japan our relations are excellent. Under these circumstances France seems to be reserved for the generous task of mediator. It will find there the means of increasing the prestige of its name, of developing its commerce and its colonies, and at the same time of permitting its ally to come out of its long meditation in Europe.

All things hold together to-day in the domain of politics. Not only will the exploitation of China by the Russians and Japanese have an incalculable reaction upon the economic life of the whole world, but, furthermore, the question of knowing whether the Japanese and Russians will share amicably or will dispute by force the benefits of developing so much riches is important in the highest degree to the vital interests of all the great powers.

HENRY GEORGE, AN APOSTLE OF REFORM.

BY FELIX L. OSWALD, M. D.

THE significance of the portents that herald the advent of a new era cannot always be clearly inferred from a single omen; but unless a whole constellation of auguring stars should have owed their aspect to an illusion of the atmosphere we cannot doubt that this century and country of ours have borne, bred, and buried one of the world's great reformers—an apostle in whose name sects will be founded and kingdoms subverted, and whose doctrines will be treasured as revelations of inspired truth.

Henry George, the prophet of an industrial millennium, could claim all the signs of a fate-favored avatar. He was thoroughly in earnest; he had the courage and the eloquence of an enthusiastic belief in the earth-redeeming tendency of his gospel, and that gospel appealed strongly to the hopes of toil-burdened millions, the pariahs and step-children of modern civilization.

HENRY GEORGE.

That the lodestar of his projects may have been an *ignis fatuus* detracts little or nothing from the chances of his apotheosis. Eloquence less irresistible than his has lured mighty nations to a will-o'-the-wisp hunt of centuries. Less plausible arguments than those of his social evangel have set continents aflame with the fires of revolt.

Contemporaries who did not avail themselves of the opportunities to witness a mass-meeting of Georgian devotees and listen to the impassioned harangues of their prophet missed a rare chance to get an idea of contagious enthusiasm: the fervid appeals of the orator, his absolute and unmistakable unselfishness and wholly reckless devotion to the service of his cause, the rapt attention and kindling ecstasy of his hearers, and the storm-bursts of irrepressible cheers, sounding like hosannahs, and often strangely like yells of defiance to the opponents of their idol—cheers that differed from an ordinary ripple of applause as the rising roar of a forest fire differs from the crackle of a blazing brush pile. In Europe I have heard the like only once, when Louis Kossuth, on his last visit to London, addressed an assembly of Hungarian patriots.

The Georgian gospel of tax reform has been fiercely assailed from half a hundred different points of views; but it has been justly said that a better way to deal with a strange creed is to trace its origin, and the career of the author of "Progress and Poverty" presents suggestive data that may help to explain the genesis of tenets that cannot be exercised by vituperation.

Henry George's childhood was not cradled in a bed of roses. His parents were poor, and, after several vain attempts to secure employment that would leave him a little leisure for study, Henry decided to try his luck in California, at a time when the Golden State was still a land of promise. He was not afraid to work where wages were fair and contrived to save a few hundred dollars doing odd jobs in Oakland and Sacramento or peddling notions when the reflux tide of the exhausted placers had swamped the labor market. But all his leisure hours were devoted to reading; as early as 1874 his thoughts turned to projects of reform, and in debates on his hobbies he often forgot eating and drinking.

There is a pretty anecdote about an

Oakland shopkeeper who had made young George's acquaintance in the course of a few business transactions—the future reformer was peddling clothes-wringers at that time—and got into a controversy with him on tariff legislation, a topic which had occasionally been agitated by the San Francisco press. George lingered on the grocer's back porch to champion the cause of free trade, but remembering a business engagement on Berkeley Heights finally left, promising to call again with another job lot of his notions. It was a stormy day, whirls of fine sand sweeping the streets in gusts of fitful fury, and just before dark the grocer was surprised to see the young peddler reemerge from the dust clouds.

"Why, Mr. George," he said, "I'm sorry you went to all that trouble in such weather; there was no such hurry about those wringers."

"Those wringers? No, I shall fetch them to-morrow or Wednesday," said the amateur dealer in tariff projects; "but I couldn't eat my supper till I had called your attention to a serious mistake of yours in your arguments for protection. You remember you said a high tariff would secure a home market? That's correct, for better or worse; but then you added that it would insure high wages. Enable employers to be generous, you probably meant; but who's going to compel them? Isn't there a great risk that they will take a double advantage? Raise the price of their products, oh, yes; but if it comes to sharing profits they will play their old game over again and screw down their serfs to the lowest possible wages they can force them to accept."

Hungry, footsore, fagged out with the fatigue of a busy day, he had walked three miles in a blinding gale to reopen the discussion of that little point.

But of such is the kingdom of world-swaying ideas, for their converts will propagate their discussion-tested doctrines with equal zeal.

George then worked a year or two as a journeyman printer, and finally drifted to the literary and commercial metropolis of the state. The social atmosphere of San Francisco charmed the young home-seeker as much as the climate. There were just foreigners enough to leaven the Puritan conservatism of the homogenous states; dissenters of all classes were tolerated, if not encouraged; a boom-tide of enterprise kept up wages, and all western California would have been paradise if it had not been for the curse of the middleman incubus. Not more than twenty miles from town the finest fruit in the world could be bought for a dime a peck, but the patrons of the city markets had to pay a dime a quart. The price of cord-wood quadrupled in the course of a day's haul. There were mines of lignite fuel on the Pacific coast, a little further north, but their owners would sell only at corner rates, and eastern imports could not be had for less than twelve dollars a ton for the same grades of bituminous coal that sold for three dollars in Kansas City and could be shipped west for four. In Monterey Bay George saw the native half-breeds haul out wharf-boats full of fine sea-fish, glittering golden red, and in all hues of the rainbow, and was surprised to learn that the fishermen received only fifty cents per hundred pounds.

"Then why in the name of sense don't you fetch them to the city?" asked the investigator. "We would be glad to pay you five times as much, or more."

"Yes, but then we would lose our wholesale market," sighed the pescador. "The commission dealers won't allow us to peddle."

It was the same with the real estate market. Vacant land was still abundant, but the middlemen had cornered whole counties. They chased squatters from the timber lands of the coast range, and prospectors from the bars of the inland rivers. Good farming lands were held at forbidding prices, and there were speculators who bribed ignorant ranchers to sell them the reversion of old Mexican crown grants of fabulous areas of the rich southern pasture grounds.

Rents in San Francisco were outrageously high, but by dint of Spartan self-denial Henry George had managed to save enough to buy a printing outfit and rent an office of

his own, and early in the seventies he carried out his long-cherished project of starting a newspaper, the *San Francisco Post*, for the special purpose of fighting the middlemen nuisance. There were already three other dailies in the field, but the talents of the reform enthusiast asserted themselves before long, and the *Post* began to sell, though its advertising columns looked rather straggling, the circulation of the paper being long limited to the working classes, whose rights were more and more aggressively championed against all monopolists.

The commission-house grievance did right itself after a fashion, but the land-grabber incubus grew more burdensome—so much so, indeed, that it finally threatened to arrest the progress of all industrial enterprises. "California," says the eye-witness of that phenomenon, "had already entered the arena of agricultural competition; but real estate speculation ran up land values in every direction, till the produce of the richest soils almost ceased to repay the cost of cultivation. If the population of California had steadily grown when the long, costly, fever-haunted Isthmus route was the principal mode of communication with the Atlantic States, it must, it was thought, increase enormously with the opening of a railroad that would bring New York Harbor and San Francisco Bay within a week's easy travel, and when in the state itself the locomotive took the place of stage-coach and freight wagon the expected increase of land values which would then accrue was discounted in advance. Lots in the suburbs of San Francisco rose hundreds and thousands per cent; farming land was taken up and held for high prices. But the anticipated rush of immigrants did not take place. Labor and capital could not pay so much for land and make fair returns. Production was checked. As the transcontinental railroad approached completion, instead of increased activity symptoms of depression began to manifest themselves, and when it was completed that depression spread to the northern limits of the mining region and resulted in the failure of numerous business firms."

That panic developed the germs of the single tax theory. The young free-trader had seen the octopus of land monopoly in its ugliest forms, and the plan of regenerating society by a radical anti-land-grab measure became a fixed idea.

The failure of the *San Francisco Post* has been ascribed to the machinations of the California land-sharks, whom the editor had classed with the worst enemies of the human race, but it is probable that the editorial monomania brought about the collapse of the paper in a different manner. In 1877 the soul of Henry George had already begun to labor under the birth-throes of his reform project; he could not sleep and got up in the middle of the night to add scrap leaves to a boxful of manuscript notes; he deputied much of his newspaper work and took long, solitary rambles beyond the beach of the Cliff House. So when his creditors seized his office and gave him an excuse for accepting the position of an inspector of gas-meters he rather welcomed the change. It insured him from six to ten hours of daily leisure, and in the spring of 1879 the Messrs. Appleton of New York City received the manuscript of "Progress and Poverty." There is a tradition that Murray at first declined the copyright of "Eothen," and the shrewd New York publishing firm seems to have hesitated on the brink of a similar mistake when their readers reported on the heresies of an unknown writer who denounced the theorems of Malthus and Adam Smith as pitiful fallacies; but the inspiration and what the Germans call the *Beruf* of the work were too unmistakable, and under the impulse of a timely report of land riots in Ireland and southern Italy the Appletons decided to accept the manuscript.

"In a discussion with a learned mollah," says the French translator of the "Arabian Nights," "I was told that one main proof of the supernatural origin of the Koran could be found in its literary perfections; its grammar was faultless, its pathos unequaled in daring metaphor, yet free from all dross of bombast, the whole a classic production abounding in happy phrases not

found in any former writer." Even thus the perusal of "Progress and Poverty" must have impressed the connoisseur of the Appletons. Where did an autodidact acquire that mastery of diction, that skill in the use of similes and classic antitheses? Had his drudgery as printing proprietor of a polemic daily left him leisure to study Burke's "Impeachment" and the Philippics of Demosthenes? And where did he get some of his phrases? Would the appearance of that enthusiast in the lecture field not result in founding a new school of oratory? How did he develop his talent?

The key to these riddles can, however, be found in the speech-transfiguring influence of all mental exaltation. Intense thought finally flames out in burning words and phrases luminous with the light of clear conviction; the whole oratorical edifice at last begins to glow, as the Temple of Serapis was irradiated by the presence of spirits.

Sincerity is a main condition of such inspirations, but in some of their forms they would also seem to be a privilege of one-idead and self-taught men. Thinkers of broader culture are rarely millennium prophets; they see obstacles that modify the fervor of their hopes. Erasmus could hold his own against any scholar of contemporary Europe, but he could not have done the work of Martin Luther. Mohammed hungered and thirsted after knowledge as his traveling companions hungered after gold, but if he had really availed himself of the chance to attend the lectures of a Syrian savant the Koran would perhaps never have been written.

Still, after all those explanations, the eloquence of the California job-work hunter seems often little short of miraculous. Let us waive the ban of his heresies and venture a glance at a passage or two:

> It is not labor in itself that is repugnant to man; it is not the natural necessity for exertion which is a curse. It is only labor unrewarded by progress—exertions of which the toiler cannot see the results. To drudge day after day and yet get but the necessaries of life, the bare means enabling the toiler to toil again to-morrow—this is indeed hard; it is like the infernal punishment of compelling a man to pump lest he be drowned, or to trudge on a treadmill lest he be crushed. . . . But to remove want and the fear of want, to give to all classes leisure and comfort and independence, the decencies and refinements of life, the opportunities of mental and moral development, would be like turning water into a desert. The sterile waste would clothe itself with verdure; the barren plains where life seemed banished would ere long be dappled with the shade of trees and musical with the song of birds. Talents now hidden, virtues unsuspected, would come forth to make human life richer, fuller, happier, nobler.
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> Political economy has been called the dismal science, and as currently taught is hopeless as despair. But this, as we have seen, is solely because she has been degraded and shackled—her truths dislocated, her harmonies ignored, the word she would utter gagged in her mouth, and her protest against wrong turned into an endorsement of injustice. Freed as I have tried to free her, in her own proper harmony, political economy is radiant with hope.

The verdict of the public at first seemed to endorse that conclusion. For nearly a year the work had a large and steady sale in the United States and Canada, but especially in landlord-ridden England, just as the seed of Buddhist pessimism found its most congenial soil in China, where for millions life had really ceased to be worth living. The shilling edition of one London publisher sold a thousand copies a week for months together, but England also raised the first hue and cry of protest, and a frightened henchman of conservatism called the doctrine of the political heretic "that latest pest from the land of Tom Payne." The alarm spread to Canada, and back to the birthland of the schism, and the *jehad* for and against the gospel of the new prophet has begun to be waged with a bitterness far exceeding that of the controversy provoked by the publication of the "Gorilla Nightmare," as the Duke of Argyle called Darwin's simian apocalypse.

Collated with their most cogent pros and cons, the chief theorems of "Progress and Poverty" may be stated as follows:

1. Land monopoly is the chief cause of pauperism: Pro.—The unfair distribution of land debars millions from the primary opportunities of industrial enterprise. Con.—You forget that poverty likewise prevails where fertile land is cheap and abundant.

2. A tax on land values is the only fair tax, and could be made to cover all state and municipal expenses, thus freeing industry from the weight of a cruel handicap: Pro.—The fiscal burden would thus be shifted from the productive to the non-productive classes, and the distribution of wealth would be more nearly equalized. Con.—A tax of that sort would not begin to cover the expenses of a civilized government unless its rates should be increased to a degree that would make it a crushing burden on what you call the primary opportunities of industrial enterprise. As for the contrast of wealth and poverty, it will remain till you can equalize the distribution of physical and mental abilities.

3. The single tax would prevent land monopolies even without a resort to confiscation. It would also facilitate the collection of taxes: Pro.—It would compel nine out of ten monopolists to sell unused lands. Tax collectors would have easy work, because real estate cannot be hidden like personal estate nor denied like secret sources of income. Con.—Your tax might deter buyers, the monopolist would simply drop his claim to superfluous real estate and thus reduce your basis of taxation.

4. The single tax would check the exodus from the country to the city: Pro.—Yes, because our plan of tariff reform implies free trade, and the enormous reduction in the price of many commodities would enable agriculturists to expend a large percentage of their earnings for the increase of personal comforts. Con.—It is not the high price of dry goods that drives thousands of peasant boys from the paternal grange to the Babel of a great city; it is the lack of pastimes, the intolerable tedium of village life, and a growing aversion to hard physical labor.

5. Our reform will civilize the savages of the city slums and turn thousands of idlers into industrious, self-supporting citizens: Pro.—The possession of a private home would form a rallying-point of other acquirements, physical, mental, and moral. Men who now get discouraged at the prospect of perpetual drudgery on the hand-to-mouth plan would work cheerfully if they could see a hope of progress. Land monopoly has turned them into worse than slaves by depriving them, not of the blessings only, but the very hope of independence. Con.—Experience has shown that about eighty per cent of the alleged victims prefer slum tenements to cheaper suburban homes. They would not accept farms in a temperance state as a present. The liquor traffic has made a thousand paupers where land monopoly makes one.

Numerous other objections to the single tax project voiced the alarm of imperiled interests, and one critic denounced the Georgian millennium scheme as "the most dangerous and *immoral* plot ever hatched against the established order of modern civilization." This charge amused George so much that it almost atoned for the annoyance of other attacks. He threw back his head and indulged in a low, half-inward chuckle. "I thought I would bring them to time," he said. "You know there is no surer sign of your adversary's being clean out of better arguments. The moment one of these moralists gets worsted in a debate he contrives to remember that your boy robbed a hen-roost or that one of your aunts ran away with the coachman. 'A clever orator, but oh, what immorality!'—that's their clutch at the last straw. If you spike all their other guns, a volley of personal insinuations comes whizzing about your ears; they heard it whispered that you go fishing on Sundays and warn the public that you are not a fit associate for self-respecting citizens."

He thought of framing that inquisition article, and never wearied of quizzing its author. "Look at these triumphs of protection," said he nearly a year after, exhibiting a sample of Canadian sulphur matches. "They are not worth picking up in the gutter, but the Dominion government protects them by a prohibitive tariff on Yankee imports. They burn slow, go out easy, and smell horribly, but if you would oblige the responsible manufacturer to admit all that he would get out his trump card and tell you in confidence that the

Yankee inventor of parlor matches is in the habit of saying 'Great Scott' instead of 'Dog-gone,' and that his factory should be boycotted by all friends of law and order."

Henry George had a vein of rollicking humor that often surprised visitors who had known him only from his writings. "I wonder how such a funny talker could write a book on such a dry subject," said one of his lady acquaintances. "You ought to remember that he did not make it a dry book," shot in Mrs. George, who will not tolerate a doubt that her husband is the most amiable, as well as most immortal, citizen of this great republic.

"If they ever build me a temple they have a ready-made formula of idolatry: 'By George!'" laughed the millennium prophet in reply to the flattering forecasts of one of his converts.

"The present tariff vindicates the sterling good sense of our party," said a New England protection paper. "Penny-wise and pound-sterling foolish would be nearer the truth," remarked the champion of free trade. "But that fellow reminds me of a funny story from Turkey at the time of Abdul Assiz. He had given Ruloff Pasha two millions and Ayub Pasha a million and a half, and there was a rumor that the sultan must be crazy. But the next day a communication to the leading periodical denied the impeachment and stated that His Majesty had given unquestionable evidences of sterling good sense; signed, Ruloff Pasha and Ayub Pasha."

Five years after the publication of "Progress and Poverty" the author's mail had assumed proportions that would have engrossed his leisure hours if he had not read and answered half his letters by proxy, and in 1886 he was nominated mayor of New York. Professional politicians marveled at the boldness of the candidate, but their amazement assumed the form of consternation when the venture came within touch of success. By what tricks of leverage had this parvenu lifted himself to such a height of popularity? And in a city, too, where his appeals would be lost upon thousands of foreigners and routine voters, and where his chances depended almost exclusively on specialty influences? What new power had entered the arena of party politics?

The narrowly defeated candidate did not regret the experiment. It had answered his purpose in other ways, and at last enabled him to plant his banner upon a vantage-ground of success which six years ago loomed only afar off among the day-dream visions of his prophetic intuition. He had become famous enough to live for and by the promotion of his pet project. The demand for supplements to his political Koran exceeded his means of supply; he could not write as fast as his friends would have got his pamphlets published at liberal rates of compensation. He received tempting offers from press syndicates and lecture agents, but generally contented himself with filing the addresses of such applicants and would not bind himself to any engagement that could hamper the free moving of his spirit.

From a party council's point of view Henry George was indeed a rather unmanageable entity. He tolerated the freest criticism but would accept no campaign injunctions and sign no contracts. One of his partisans relates that in California once they asked him to be a candidate for the state senate, and he was willing. At their convention, when he mounted the stage, they inquired of him, as of other candidates, if he would subscribe to the platform and govern himself by the directions of the executive committee, when elected. His reply was a flat refusal—blunt to the verge of an insult: "What do you take me for," or words to that effect. He would be no party hack and wear nobody's dog-collar, no matter how tastefully plated. They dropped that peculiar candidate, of course—dropped him from every emergency list, while they were about it, but his principles went on record with or without the assistance of committees, and even before the publication of his manifesto the voters of nine out of ten American cities would have hailed him as a champion of reform.

A more questionable phase of that self-dependence was his indifference to all

other reform projects whatever. To him it seemed a sin against the holy spirit of his apocalypse to doubt the all-sufficiency of his plan for every purpose of human regeneration. He snubbed temperance committees and Sabbath associations and ascribed the exclusiveness of the A. P. A. to the delusions of the Malthus doctrine. "The more the merrier" seemed to be his private view of the immigration problem. The chance of remunerative work, he felt sure, would empty out the dram-shops; people get drunk to drown their misery, but as soon as they found better employment prohibitive laws would become superfluous. On the other hand, he predicts that his reform will abate the monomania race for wealth. He says:

> Under present circumstances poverty is a concentration of all courses, and men work with feverish energy to push want and the remotest risk of want beyond the sphere of possibility; but when the means of a comfortable existence shall have been brought within easy reach of all, that dread will cease to haunt the dreams of well-to-do people, and a time will come when the accumulator of superfluous wealth will excite as much surprise as if he were trying to thatch his head with six hats or wear double overcoats in warm weather.

As a collateral, or rather coordinate, measure of his plan of salvation, he proposed to carry free trade to the length of abolishing custom-houses altogether, and thus give America an *a-priori* advantage over Great Britain, where commerce is partly free but industry groans under the burden of taxation. Sundry protection-pampered American manufacturing enterprises would perhaps be forced to the wall; but what of that? The ousted operatives would find cheap vacant farming lands in abundance, and engage in agriculture—after all the only really natural employment for beings of our species—the healthiest, too, and the most conducive to independence. The market quotations of farming produce might thus be depressed by over-competition, but would it count for nothing that thousands would have found shelter and food for themselves and their children?

The remission of all taxes but those on land values would enable railroads to carry passengers at a cent a mile; laborers could earn enough in one day to travel a hundred miles and back in prospecting for more attractive homes. The means of existence no longer depending on government patronage, men would become more self-reliant; education, too, would be conducted on less servile and less pedantic plans. Nay, the single tax would even make men more moral. In "Progress and Poverty" (p. 325) we read:

> The growth of morality consequent upon the cessation of want would diminish the business of the criminal courts. . . . The rise of wages, the opening of opportunities for all to make an easy and comfortable living, would soon eliminate from society the thieves, swindlers, and other classes of criminals who spring from the unequal distribution of wealth.

George's confidence in the regenerative omnipotence of his project occasionally approaches the limits of the grotesque, and in the words of a western humorist, "often reminds one of that pill-vender who vaunted his specific as a golden key to the treasure-house of health, and all that health and happiness imply—material prosperity, peace of mind, good will of neighbors, and the future rewards of a well-spent life."

Like Voltaire, Henry George died amid a blaze of triumphs that probably shortened his life by several years, but the work of that life sufficed to insure the progress of his propaganda. Even now zealous advocates of the single tax project are found from San Francisco to Budapest, from Auckland to St. Petersburg, and there is no doubt that his plan is destined to be tested on an enormous scale. It is almost equally certain that the experiment is predestined to failure; but for centuries that failure will be ascribed to incidental causes—the treachery of trusted leaders, official corruption, perversions and misinterpretations of the master's pure doctrine—to anything rather than the master's fallibility.

Unselfish devotion is the price of such trust; and of Henry George and many of his critics it holds good what Landor said of Jean Jacques Rousseau and the wits of the Holbach Club: "They tried to amuse and they have succeeded; he has failed, but he has tried to save."

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

NEW YEAR'S CUSTOMS IN MANY LANDS.

BY ELIZABETH T. NASH.

NEW YEAR'S was not observed as a Christian festival until the year 487, and there is little mention of it in the records before the eleventh century. It was not included in the liturgy until A. D. 1550. Most countries celebrate New Year's on January 1. The Jews, however, celebrate in September. As the Hebrews arrange their calendar according to the new moon, their months are either twenty-nine or thirty days long, and in order to make their calendar correspond with the solar system they have seven leap-years of thirteen months in every nineteen years. This makes their New Year a movable holiday. The Mohammedan New Year also came in September this year.

The Chinese celebrate their New Year in the early part of February, its date depending on the moon. The celebration lasts a whole month. New Year's is ushered in by a beating of drums and firing of crackers. The houses are decorated with flags, banners, and lanterns. The people visit their Joss houses, worship their gods, and look solemnly at each other, shake hands with themselves, and say, "Gong he fat Foi," which is the nearest they can come to wishing a "Happy New Year." A Chinaman who does not pay up all his debts and come out even with the world on New Year's Day is looked down upon as unworthy of the friendship of a Chinese gentleman.

The ancient Saxon children used to dance around an apple-tree on New Year's Eve, singing this song to insure a plentiful crop the next season:

Stand fast, bear well top,
Pray God send us a howling crop.
Every twig—apples big;
Every bough—apples enow;
Hats full, caps full,
Full quarter—sacks full.

Ringing the bells to announce the death of the old year and birth of the new is a common custom in England and Scotland and some parts of the United States. In many of the churches in England an impressive service is held at the hour of midnight. According to another English custom, as the midnight hour strikes, the outer door of the house is opened and its occupants with great formality "let out the old, let in the new." In the dales of Westmoreland it is customary to open the west door to let the old year out and the east door to welcome the new year in.

The "mummers," or "guisers," play an important part in celebrating New Year's in Scotland. All the boys in the village who can sing practice songs for the occasion, and on the important night they borrow old shirts of their fathers and cut out brown paper miters from which to hang masks to conceal their faces. Each guiser is accompanied by a squire dressed as a girl, who goes before him to open the door when he sings. While the song is in progress she sweeps the floor with a broomstick or plays some curious prank. They receive in return small pieces of money.

When pins were first invented at Gloucester, England, in the sixteenth century, they straightway became popular as New Year's presents, but later money for their purchase, called "pin money," was given instead.

A New Year's celebration among the Greeks, including all of the Greek Church, whether Russians, Bulgarians, or Hellenic Greeks, is described somewhat as follows: Christmas being a holy day but not a holiday, New Year's takes its place as a time of gifts, frolics, family gatherings, and general rejoicing. The women usually give presents of beautiful embroidery, often their own work, but the father of a family,

however poor, must give his wife and each child a present of money. The children's money is placed in a little earthen jar and kept, so when the child grows up there is a snug little sum for his start in life. The gentlemen of the higher, wealthier classes call on their fair friends and must always take a present. The caller is offered sweetmeats, a glass of water, a cup of Turkish coffee, but no wine or liquor. When he leaves he finds the servants all drawn up in a row and he presents them each with money. This is repeated in every house he visits, and he must visit all his friends and friends' wives on New Year's or be forever deprived of their friendship. He must also give his own servants presents of money. The children have a few cheap toys, candies, and dried fruits. "Watch service" is held, and on returning from church the head of the family breaks a pomegranate on the floor to insure good fortune and health. They then have a feast of all kinds of nuts, candied fruits, raisins, figs, and dates. Some nutshells are thrown into the four corners of the room to blind the evil one. Then each one must eat some of each article on the table. At night they have an immense cake in which are two coins—gold, silver, or copper. It is set upon the table and each person receives a piece. The ones having the coins are elected king and queen of the feast and are crowned with much ceremony. The young girls bite off a piece of their cake, wrap it in blue paper, and place it under their pillows to dream on; the man they dream of will be the husband designed for them by fate.

An ancient superstition made it a sure sign of death before the next New Year to see your own shadow in the moonlight on the 1st of January. According to another superstition, unless one wished to court misfortune he should not leave the house on New Year's Day until some one had entered, and the visitor, to bring the best luck, must be a dark-haired man.

In Wales fires are often burned on New Year's to purify the house for the entrance of the New Year, and the ashes of these fires are kept most sacredly from year to year. They are supposed to possess special medicinal virtues.

In Jena, Germany, there is a curious custom, perhaps worthy of imitation in some respects. In very ancient times the ancestors of these Germans believed in a god who brought light and warmth into the world each year, overcoming the darkness and cold of winter. A great bonfire annually typifies this ever-new gift of the genial old god. A huge pile of wood is placed in the center of the market-place, and here the people flock, bringing with them things they wish to cast behind them in entering a new year. Maidens cast in love-letters containing promises that have not been kept; bits of ribbon and feminine keepsakes are brought by young men who have newer affairs of the heart; bottles are thrown in by a few persons who decide that in the coming year they will drink only from mugs; pipes are offered by those who have learned to prefer cigars. A little before midnight the square is crowded with townfolk. The huge bonfire is started and the young men dance around it. After a little the crowd melts away, while from every quarter arises the cry, "Health to the New Year."

The following description of a regimental custom is given by Rev. E. J. Hardy, an English chaplain, in "An English Soldier's Christmas."

The Scotch regiments keep New Year's much as the other regiments keep Christmas. At five minutes to twelve the band and pipers of the Seaforth Highlanders, preceded by "Father Time," the oldest soldier in the ranks, in costume, with hour-glass and scythe, played across the square and out of the barrack gate, which closed behind them. The strains of "Auld Lang Syne" bade farewell to the old year. As the clock struck the hour of midnight a knock was heard at the barrack gate. To the sentry's challenge "Who goes there?" came the answer, "The New Year." "Advance, New Year, all's well," was the sentry's reply. The gates were thrown open, the guard turned out, and the "New Year," represented by the youngest drummer-boy in full Highland costume, was carried on shoulders, preceded by the pipers of the regiment. After making the round of the barracks he finished at the officers' mess. The evening was spent in concerts and Highland dancing.

A PLEA FOR AUTOBIOGRAPHY.

BY CARINA B. C. EAGLESFIELD, B. A.

SO many autobiographies, memoirs, and personal recollections are being written that the long-suffering public, like the proverbial worm, has finally turned, and a loud protest is sent up against this deluge of trifling details from the records of ephemeral lives. Yet, as is usually the case, each is in a measure right, the public to object and the writer to persist. Some of these books have intrinsic literary value, but others are "impertinent, superfluous, worthless, obnoxious, and inane," as one critic violently affirms. This, alas! is the case; for they are too often the record of people who are estimable, but dull to the point of stupefaction.

Discretion is a lost art with the memoirist and we would hail its return with joy and relief. Mr. Leslie Stephen makes the bold statement that there is no such thing as a dull autobiography; but, unfortunately, many are deadly in their dulness, and some are read because of the fame of the writer alone. Dulness is in truth the gravest sin which can be brought against a memoir, for the prime object of the book is supposed to be entertainment, not many reaching the lofty egotism of Cellini, who declared it the duty of every man to write the record of his life, providing it was as instructive and important as his had been.

In the liveliest personal accounts there are long stretches of dreary and trivial details, since no man can so entirely separate himself from his soul as to gauge with dispassionate accuracy the interest of his reader. To him everything must be delightfully fresh and entertaining, else he could not have put it down. He is supposed to eliminate some episodes and have some conscience for his public, otherwise the length, against which so much can be alleged, would be even more of a trial than it is. But when this is said we are almost through with our charges, and their aspects may be enlarged upon to the heart's content.

That prince of gossipers, the genial Montaigne, says: "I have a singular curiosity to pry into the souls and the natural and true opinions of the authors with whom I converse." I heartily agree with him. Since this species of gossip contains no venom, no corroding poison, we may indulge in it with impunity, and our stock of entertaining facts and curious details will be sensibly enlarged.

This brings us to the claim which autobiography makes and upon which it rests its innocent complacency—the debt which the historical muse owes to it. What if some autobiographies and a few memoirs are dull? How much duller would history be without them. The debt is an honest one, and the gravely supercilious tone which history takes toward her humbler but more charming relation is most irritating to the lovers of the latter. This vital quality of interestingness depends largely upon the gossip and personal color which the historian gives to his account of things, for we have come to the conclusion that history must entertain as well as instruct. Its much-coveted longevity is endangered if this quality is neglected, and most modern historians, as Motley, Prescott, Macaulay, and Froude, owe much of their well-deserved popularity to their ability to draw a portrait or tell a tale. The historian must steep himself so thoroughly in the time of which he treats that he necessarily fills his mind with innumerable details and all sorts of odds and ends before he can make a picture for us, and nowhere can he find such rich abundance of material as in annals, memoirs, and reminiscences.

It is the duty of history to tell the truth first of all, yet it is no less imperative upon the historian to make his picture lifelike and real to the reader. Long before the

world began to philosophize upon the function and offices of history, Herodotus and Plutarch, Froissart and Pepys unconsciously did what we moderns attempt so strenuously, and it is these very qualities which we find so delightful in the famous autobiographies of the world.

I doubt whether there will be much improvement made in the writing of autobiography, though it is certain that the number will increase as our curiosity to know the writers continues to grow. But the field has changed, and my notion is that we must go to the novel to find real confessions and perfectly truthful histories of men's souls. We have the same eagerness to fathom the secret of a man's inner life, the same curiosity to see motives and springs of action unfolded; but we are not so simple, so outspoken, so innocently vain as were the men and women of a younger generation. The heart is as interesting to-day as it was when St. Augustine penned the fiery record of his tumultuous experience; but we prefer to mask the histories of our souls in the garb of fictitious character, and when personal experience burns at white heat and we are driven by inexorable force to unburden ourselves we do not write "Confessions," *a la* Rousseau, but rather take our souls to the publisher in the guise of a novel. This is the reason why the day of great autobiographies has passed, and if ever again a man is driven to pour out his secrets without reserve or shame it will not be done with the purpose of publication in view as much as to relieve the tension of mind and make an outlet for the surcharged agony of the soul. We may not all have the literary art of Amiel, but our humbler efforts are none the less effectual in bringing tranquillity and relief.

Looking upon autobiography as the truthful record of a soul's life, I would count the "Confessions" of St. Augustine and Rousseau as the greatest in the world—in fact the only two perfect specimens. Each is the delineation of an extraordinary intellect and the story of a remarkable experience. Such subtle unveiling of motive, such unreserve were surely never before revealed to the curious ear of the world. St. Augustine's struggle was entirely spiritual; but Rousseau is always the slave of his emotions, and his wild, unbridled rehearsal goes on and on, drawing neither strength nor fortitude from the sufferer. In St. Augustine we miss the personal details which would serve to brighten the somber monologue, yet the picture is clear and impassioned.

At best words fail and language cannot express the deepest, most vital crises in a man's life; we are ever searching for expression, and striving with agonized energy to bring ourselves into perfect harmony with the soul of our other self. St. Augustine's lofty purpose was to unite his soul with that of his Heavenly Father, and his effort was so strenuous, his faith so pure, his need so urgent that his divine ambition must surely have been crowned with ultimate victory. An autobiographer stands somewhat in the attitude of a lawyer pleading his own case, and his narrative should be so told as to engage the love and devotion of his hearers. St. Augustine does this, notwithstanding the meagerness of detail, while with Rousseau, the more he enters into motive and analysis, the more he repels and disgusts.

Mr. Gibbon seems to have had the faculty of endearing himself to his readers, and were it not for a certain lack his memoirs would be almost perfect. I fancy if he had speculated less on their probable reception, and had written simply from an overburdened heart, we should still be reading him with delight. The ideal autobiographer never thinks of his public; he is like a rushing stream, overflowing and turbulent, intent upon his message and reckless of consequences along the way. Holmes once said that there were three men in each one of us: the real man, as God sees him, the man as he sees himself, and the man as the world sees him. Now Gibbon was too conscious of the world to write always as he saw himself. Carlo Goldoni, on the other hand, writes only as he saw himself, and his obliviousness to the world's estimate is entrancing. Nowhere can so vivacious and faithful a picture be found of Italian life in

the last century as in his autobiography. Our own Benjamin Franklin is alone to be compared with him in good-humored frankness, unreserve, and ingenuousness. Both have the irresistible faculty of telling damaging statements without exciting the least displeasure on the reader's part, and we are left in a provoking state of doubt whether the autobiographer realized the import or seriousness of his disclosure.

The dominant note in Franklin's memoir is buoyancy; his temperament was so sanguine and hopeful as to render him incapable of feeling remorse, and, though ready to recognize his faults and correct them, he had such genuine admiration for himself that he preferred his own faults to the virtues of others.

It is amusing to read how anxious most memoirists are to account for the fact that they have thought it worth while for posterity to know their lives, and to disabuse the public of the notion that vanity is connected with this ambition. Gibbon, Goldoni, Andersen, Leigh Hunt, and Trollope all look upon vanity as a sort of bugbear which must first be slain before the modest writer can open his story; Franklin alone confronts the charge with a bold face and humorously tries to make it not only a legitimate quality in the autobiographer but a virtue greatly to be desired.

In direct contrast with that of Franklin, who had the artist's love for expression, and, had circumstances permitted, would undoubtedly have made himself a master of style, is the autobiographical writing of Charles Darwin. Were the man not so famous, his work not epoch-making, we would be a trifle bored in wading through so many pages with the hope of catching glimpses of his inner life, but as it is, every detail is interesting, and we only regret that his defective education failed to give the least literary training.

If Mr. Darwin had had the faculty of taking the reader into his confidence as did Colley Cibber, he would have achieved a famous success. Cibber gives the impression that he could have told a story charmingly. We read Gibbon and Darwin and Mill for themselves, but Cibber for the glamour which the rascal casts over the trite and inane details of his foolish life. He fairly glories in his vanity and invulnerability to ridicule. It is vanity which makes it possible to tell the truth so barely, and vanity again which leads him to imagine that his tale will find readers. So we conclude that vanity is the corner-stone of a perfect autobiography; and when we find this trait united to great mental gifts, as in Hans Andersen, Franklin, or Rousseau, we have good reading.

There are some memoirs which are specially valuable for the pictures they give of their times, and some future historian will make good use of them, blending their own dull facts with these brilliant bits of local color. Of such, the autobiographies of Miss Cobbe, Miss Martineau, George Ebers, and James F. Clarke are distinctly worth reading. None of them had the requisite qualities for writing a graphic history of their souls; they were too reserved, too shy, and their emotional experience lacked that tragic touch which might have lifted them, as in Amiel's case, above the ordinary level. But they knew every one in their respective countries, and the famous persons of the day are reviewed with a light and graceful touch. No history of Italy could be written without reading the story of Benvenuto Cellini, of whom Horace Walpole says: "Cellini was one of the most extraordinary men of an extraordinary age, and his life written by himself is more entertaining than any novel I know." In a sparkling and deliciously funny way he gives us distinct, if brief, views of all the great artists of the day, and, liar as he truly was, we gather clearer notions of the Italy of that time than from any other source. His naïve and monumental egotism, his delight in his own performances, his impudence in crediting his readers with belief in all those impossible exploits, plunge one into a constant state of wonder. We are quite ready to affirm, after reading and enjoying his myths, that truth is no longer a necessary qualification in the autobiographer.

We are so apt to know little or nothing of our own souls that it is really surprising that we ever succeed in depicting the inner life of another. Hector Berlioz affects to scorn Rousseau's method and says: "I have not the least desire either to appear before God as the best of men or to write confessions, and I shall only say what I choose to say." Nevertheless he is continually making confessions, and his autobiography is a charming book, full of fire, and with such natural grace of style that we feel it to be the real expression of a strong and original nature.

Mr. Mill's autobiography is the exact antithesis of Berlioz'; it might be called a history of the mind under certain abnormal conditions, and we have to read between the lines to catch glimpses of his pathetic spiritual life, his starved emotions, his stunted esthetic tastes. His life leaves an impression of incompleteness upon the reader, almost as though he did not have adequate means of expression, and this in face of the fact that he did express himself most clearly on what might be called his own subjects. This I ascribe to the rigid training of his youth—to the terrible father, who could not recognize the existence of feeling, and upon whom all the warmth, affection, and impulse of his gifted son were lost. Mill fortunately felt the limitations of his education in time and his whole subsequent life was an effort to balance his faculties. The result made him as lovable as he was logical. The doctrine of circumstances was verified in his case; he was the product of his surroundings. Taine should have taken him for a text, while Berlioz' struggles against his environs, his home life, his profession—against everything planned for him—show how strenuous and impelling native genius is.

It is perhaps obvious that we can interpret Shakespeare quite as well with our scant knowledge of his private life as we can Rousseau or Goethe or Alfieri with the intimate and familiar view we have of them; yet I think the reader will get more from an author whom he has learned to love personally than from one whose life is a blank to him. A book is worth only what we get out of it, and every road which may lead to the inner shrine should be tried. Now letters and memoirs are a sort of introduction to the scribbling guild, and the personal interest which leads to a study of their works is surely far better than total ignorance of them. We may not have acquired many new facts in the reading of these lives, but we have gained vastly in knowledge of human nature and have probably made some friends who are more intimately known and more sympathetically loved than any we possess in the flesh.

A CITIZEN'S HOUSEHOLD IN PARIS.

BY EUGEN VON JAGOW.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

PARIS is not lacking in those modern houses which are designated as *maisons de demains*—gigantic barracks with from thirty to thirty-five apartments and furnished with all the latest comforts; but they are much less common than in Berlin, to which city I will make frequent comparison in the following article. Indeed Paris has many old dwelling-houses, and I will lead the reader through them, for it is only here that a citizen's household is to be found. These houses are mostly built of solid sandstone, which can be had cheap in the stone-quarries of the country, and are very attractive in the absence of the imposing but false ornamentation which disfigures most of the Berlin brick buildings. They are not magnificent to look at, and the architecture of their inner apartments has not the tendency to dazzle one, but at all events they are more comfortable than those of the German metropolis.

Little attention is given to the stateroom, but the dining-room and sleeping-rooms are

the most important. The French kings and queens often received in the sleeping-room. The word *égalité* is no empty sound with the Parisians, the apartments of the fourth story differing little from those of the *entresol* (ground floor), and the magnificent staircases of the Berlin houses, begun in white marble with bronze balustrades only to end in wood and carpetless, are almost unknown in Paris.

There is more freedom in the furnishing than prevails, for instance, in Munich, the styles of Louis XIV. and Louis XV. often mingling capitally with those of the Empire; and again the sleeping-rooms are distinguished for their comfortable arrangements —indeed one spends almost a third part of his life there. It is to be understood that I speak only of the household of the middle classes, for in the apartments of the rich, who receive all Paris, such an overloading, such pomp prevails that Max Nordau dared assert that they were only theater ornaments and lumber-rooms, frippery-stalls and museums, which, however, applies by no means to Paris alone, but is an international error in taste.

Unfortunately the servants are a part of the citizen's household, and it cannot be said of them that they improve it. The complaint against them is as constant in France as in Germany. I will leave it an open question which of the two countries has the worst servants—and the best cooks. However, the reader knows what "French cook" means and may therefore decide for himself.

The division of time observed by Parisians is worthy of mention because it exercises the greatest influence upon the social intercourse and its uses. Berlin has already learned much from Paris, but by no means all that is worthy of imitation. It has become a city of the world too quickly to have been able at one stroke to attain to a symmetry of government which with the older city is the result of a century of enduring executive development.

Paris has usually the same hour for both the principal meals of the day, while a person in Berlin never knows at what hour he can make a visit without disturbing his host. Invitations are usually issued only for dinner, the beginning of which meal is always delayed, and then it encroaches upon the theater hour. For this a man removes the dust of the day's work and the office, makes his toilet for the table, and then spends the evening in conversation, if his wife does not visit the circle or the coffee-house. The English "five o'clock tea," which reminds one a little of the Berlin "afternoon coffee," has long been the rule in the eminent Paris *salons*, but in the citizen's household it is only the exception.

Moreover the Parisian division of time proves that the wisdom of the English proverb "Time is money" is also valued on the banks of the Seine. The lady of the house never wastes her time in receiving "first calls," but lets those who have left their cards know that she receives on such and such a day, which, by the way, is not called *jour fixe* (fixed day) but plain *jour* or *mon jour*. Here one is presented to the host and hostess, also to the guests, or rather to some of them, only at special request, which in no way prohibits conversation with the rest. There is no place like Paris for general conversation. It is not a question of magnificent material entertainment or of refreshment, as in Berlin; people are there for the sake of conversation and can leave when they choose and seek out yet a second and third *salon* in the same evening, in which other intellectual interests predominate, such as literary, artistic, political, or where gossiping society is enjoyed. Only in society circles of people of rank has the material entertainment under the influence of the American won a place; but it does not answer to the French tradition and the spirit of conversation. The sensitive Frenchman loves now as ever the small dinner and hates the great banquet table.

Now let us glance at the children, who form the chief element of the citizen's household. The family, as you know, is not large in France. Let us take for example a household with one son and one daughter. Both have grown up under the eyes of the mother, have been spoiled and kept depend-

ent. But as for the rest, the education of the boy and girl is very dissimilar. Each enjoys, outside of the school, a proportionally great freedom in satisfying the desire for employment, and this is carefully watched over, as with all romantic peoples.

It is true that in the later years the manners have forcibly changed, which is attributed in the first place to the international woman's movement and the increasing interest in sport, especially the bicycle, with the feminine as well as the masculine bicycle costume. Formerly the young girl was an artless creature whom we know sufficiently from the repertoire of Eugene Scribe; to-day she likes to be masculine. She coquettes usually in the language learned from her brother, of which a clergyman recently said a monkey would be ashamed. It is not so bad as that; Gyp and Lavedau overdo in patterning after personages of the novel and of the theater, but the pleasure of emancipation remains —that is an historical fact.

Side by side with the latest ideal girl is that of the young man *fin de siècle.* The mother learned for him in order to spare him the school work; she found all that he did charming; she protected him against his teacher and often against his father. She "mothers" him, too, when he is grown up, tries to free him from military duty, or to lighten these duties for him by intercessions of all kinds. She follows him even into the garrison, leaving her husband to do without her for a few months. And finally she chooses a wife for her son, naturally a woman with rich dowry, for he has been educated with this in view. And to what profession? asks the reader perhaps. To a profession promising a safe, rising income which demands little work and no energy at all. In the cradle of the French citizen's household there are indeed mostly future officers; yet France is the land of bureaucracy.

Hitherto the responsibility of the father was only slight, and indeed with good grounds, because the so-called head of the family is only the fifth wheel of the wagon. During the day he remains out of the house in an office or some other place of business, and when he comes home tired he does not wish to play the schoolmaster. So he is often weaker than the mother, and if he is an exception to the rule it leads either to family scenes which are not exactly necessary for the children's education or, weary of the quarrel, he yields in order not to be decried as a tyrant and feared by his son.

The latest ideal of the French father of a family is to be the friend, the comrade of his son; that is, to leave his duties as a father unfulfilled and thus also renounce his rights as a father. That unnatural, friendly relation between father and son has naturally this result: that the latter has not the greatest respect for the former, talks a great deal at table, and "educates" his parents if they are not informed in the most modern affairs of the world. The product of such a perverse education is the "young man" as he can be observed in the citizen's household, and who in modern French literature finds innumerable counterparts.

THE HOURS OF WORK OF WOMEN AND CHILDREN.

BY FLORENCE KELLEY

OF HULL-HOUSE.

THE hours of work of women and children vary greatly in different parts of the country and in different branches of industry. The most advanced position on this subject has been taken by Utah, where the eight-hour day in mines, factories, and smelters is provided for all employees, men as well as women and children, in the state constitution, and has been sustained by the Supreme Court of the state. Next to Utah, the most enlightened state in this regard is Massachusetts, where the hours of labor of women and children are limited by a statute

enacted in 1875, sustained by the Supreme Court of Massachusetts in 1876, and amended in late years to limit to fifty-eight hours the working week of women and minors. This statute is in advance of the legislation of other states having old established manufactures, and is confirmed by long usage. In New York and Pennsylvania the working day for women under twenty-one and for minors under eighteen is limited to ten hours and the legal working week to sixty hours.

In Illinois the Supreme Court decided in March, 1895 (Ritchie *vs.* the People), that the statute of 1893 known as the "eight hour-law," which made it a misdemeanor punishable with a fine to employ any female longer than eight hours in any one day or forty-eight hours in any one week in any manufacturing establishment, factory, or workshop was unconstitutional. The court, however, pointed out that this decision would not apply to a measure limiting the hours of work of employees under the age of eighteen years. Accordingly, at the last legislature a provision was incorporated in the new child labor law prohibiting the employment of any child under sixteen years of age in any manufacturing establishment, factory, workshop, store, office, or laundry longer than ten hours in any one day or sixty hours in any one week. This is the first step toward retrieving the injury wrought by the decision of the Supreme Court. It is a very small step, indeed, because the eight-hour law, at the time of its annulment, affected thirty thousand women and girls, while a liberal estimate places at twelve thousand the children affected by the ten-hour provision of the new law. Yet in a state in which little girls work in the laundries until two and even three o'clock on Sunday morning, and many hundreds work in the Christmas season as cash girls, any step toward a normal, legal working day is to be welcomed.

Under the new provisions the great department stores may still legally have girls of fourteen at work so late that they cannot reach home before midnight, provided the children begin their "day" after noon and do not work longer than ten hours in any twenty-four. The usage of keeping the stores open far into the night on certain days of the week has hitherto not been mitigated by the employment of shifts. The same little girls who began to carry cash at 7:30 in the morning, when the first early bird attacked the bargain-counter worm, were still staggering under their burden of fatigue and sleepiness at eleven o'clock on Christmas Eve. The pulpit has at last begun to inveigh against this custom, and in all the great cities those stores whose customers are found only among the wealthy and well-to-do avoid late-at-night work. But such stores are few and they are not increasing.

Owing to the failure of the new Illinois law to prohibit night work for children, it is still legal for boys to work from six in the evening to three in the morning, and they do this constantly in nail mills and glass-works. It is, however, possible that this may be checked under the new law which prohibits the employment of children under sixteen years of age in any extra-hazardous occupation whereby life or limb is endangered or health may be injured or morals depraved. The position has not yet been taken that night work is injurious to children to the extent of being extra-hazardous; but the heat, over-exertion, and danger of collision with red-hot pipes in the wavering hands of sleepy children would seem to constitute, in in the case of the glass-works, just such an extra-hazard as that contemplated by the law. Should the courts take this view of the matter such work could be summarily stopped. The same reasoning applies to messenger and telegraph boys employed to go to all sorts of places at all hours of the night, in all possible weathers and in contact with the most depraved people of the great cities.

In the laundries irregularity of work is a normal condition, and is merely aggravated by the urgent haste for the return of fresh linen bred in the customer by the heat of summer. The hours of work per week differ in the different branches of employment in the laundry; thus the washers begin on

Monday morning early, but the ironers only at noon on Monday, or even on Tuesday morning. Before the washers can begin, however, the sorters and markers must do their share, at least to the first lots of goods. After the washers go home, on Friday night or at noon on Saturday, the ironers toil on until the last piece is ready to be returned to its owner—perhaps at four o'clock on Sunday morning. It is the unlimited working day, as much as the extreme heat and the exertion, which exhausts the laundry girls, rendering them an easy prey to rheumatism and nervous prostration. Fainting and prostration from the heat are common episodes in the best ordered laundries, with artificial ventilation, as well as in the worst ones in tenement-house cellars, where ventilation is impossible.

Stenographers, typewriters, and confidential clerks from the nature of their work enjoy a short working day. Yet from time to time bitter complaints are made by the stenographers in large mercantile establishments that they too are sacrificed to the "rush" season and compelled, on pain of dismissal, to work for weeks together far into the small hours of the morning.

It may seem incredible that there is a large and growing body of women who work regularly all night. But it is only necessary to reflect that all the department stores, railroad depots, office buildings, and other sky-scrapers are scrubbed by women at night, to verify this statement. The telephone girls in the offices of the great dailies work at night; and in one of the great electrical works, which employs more women than any other manufacturing establishment in Illinois, girls are engaged regularly from six at night to five in the morning thirteen weeks of every year. The effect of this work upon the health is ruinous, for the girls do not acquire the habit of regular and sufficient sleep by day, but work, as they say, "on nerve," using stimulants for the purpose of keeping awake.

In the sewing trades, since the "Song of the Shirt" the hours of labor of women and girls have been reduced only in those establishments which have steam-power, and even in these the improvement is seeming rather than real, many of them requiring employees to carry home work at the close of the day whenever a sudden pressure requires "rushing." Throughout these trades the pay is so meager and the season so short and precarious that girls who have worked with the intensity which the steam-driven machine exacts, for nine, ten, or even eleven or twelve hours a day, eagerly seize every opportunity to work over time whenever opportunity offers.

In all factories and shops in which foot-power is used the working day is practically unlimited, being determined only by the endurance of the operative. Even in states in which the working day of women and girls is limited by statute to ten in any one day, or sixty in any one week, the garment shops are practically exempted from such limitations by their very numbers and the impossibility of inspecting them often enough to enforce the law effectually.

Women and girls are worse off, as a rule, in the matter of the hours of labor than men and boys, because they have no organization and relatively little skill. They have, therefore, no adequate means of insisting upon reasonable hours. Although the sweat-shop form of the threat, "If you do not like our hours of work there are plenty of girls who do" may be exchanged for a suaver formula, the substance of the threat is always present in the minds of working girls, and effectually prevents them from making any consistent stand for a shorter working day.

Improvement in this direction has been seriously interrupted by the Illinois Supreme Court precedent, and the path of social amelioration by constitutional methods never was steeper or stonier than it is to-day. The shortening and regulating of the hours of work of women and girls in this country now seems likely to be accomplished only as an incidental feature of the world-wide struggle of the working class for more leisure each day and a longer series of working days in the year.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

THE PRESIDENT'S MESSAGE.

WILLIAM McKINLEY.
President of the United States.

As both houses of the Fifty-fifth Congress were already organized when they met in regular session on December 6, President McKinley's message was the one matter to claim public attention. This document, which is of about the usual length of such messages, is written in a clear, straightforward style, without ambiguity or rhetorical display. The three questions which it gives greatest consideration are the currency, Cuba, and Hawaiian annexation. Concerning the first of these the president says that the evil of our present system is found in the great cost to the government of maintaining $900,000,000 of our currency on a parity with gold. As the government's receipts are not required to be paid in gold, the only sure way it has of obtaining gold is by borrowing. The president regards it as a duty that as soon as the receipts of the government are sufficient to pay all its expenses any United States notes that are redeemed in gold shall be set apart, and be paid out only in exchange for gold. He considers it of the utmost importance that the government should be relieved from the burden of providing all the gold required for exchanges and export, and invites attention to Secretary Gage's plan for removing the threatened recurrence of a depleted gold reserve. He concurs with the secretary of the treasury that national banks should be allowed to issue notes to the face value of the bonds they have deposited for circulation, that the tax on circulating notes should be reduced to one half of one per cent, and that authority should be given for the establishment of banks of a minimum capital stock of $25,000. He also recommends that national banks be required to redeem their notes in gold.

To the consideration of our duty toward Spain and Cuba the president devotes almost half the message. He quotes as signally relevant to the present situation passages from President Grant's message of 1875. President Grant at that time deemed it unwise to accord belligerent rights to the Cubans, as he did not find evidences of a substantial political organization, as the contest was carried on wholly on land, and especially because such recognition would entail upon this country difficult and complicated duties. President McKinley is, moreover, of the opinion that recognition at the present time would be of questionable advantage to the Cubans. "For these reasons," he says, "I regard the recognition of the belligerency of the Cuban insurgents as now unwise, and therefore inadmissible." He further states that in view of the change of government in Spain and the new policy adopted toward Cuba, Spain should be given a reasonable chance to realize her expectations. The president is able to announce that the government has no knowledge of a single American now in arrest or confinement in Cuba, and asserts that the government will continue its watchful care over the rights and property of American citizens and will abate none of its efforts to bring about by peaceful agencies an honorable and enduring peace.

In treating of the annexation of Hawaii the president declares that every consideration of dignity and honor requires the confirmation of the treaty now before the Senate. Concerning Alaska, he agrees with the secretary of war that a military force should be sent to the territory and urges the establishment of a more flexible system of government. Civil service reform calls forth the remark that there are places now in the classified service which ought to be exempted and others not classified which may properly be included. Other subjects treated by the president are the Bimetallic Commission, the sealing negotiations, international arbitration, the Paris Exposition, the navy, yellow fever and quarantine, etc.

COMMENT ON THE CURRENCY SUGGESTIONS.

(Rep.) New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

We do not need to urge our readers to give this part of the message the careful attention which it deserves, nor will any intelligent citizen, whatever his political and financial opinions may be, fail to observe the courteous tone in which the president frankly avows convictions which he is aware that a considerable part of Congress and of the country have not hitherto shared. On this and other contro-

* This department, together with the book "The Social Spirit in America," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

versial topics the message is remarkable alike for the firmness and the suavity of its utterances.

(Dem.) The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

The Courier-Journal is not inclined to quarrel with the president for not pressing a more elaborate scheme for currency reform. It would be glad to see this first step taken. It believes that for the present, under existing circumstances, such a step would reassure the country, protect the gold reserve, and prepare the way for an ultimate completion of the reform thus begun.

(Ind.) Providence Journal. (R. I.)

These are not radical changes; they would not give us the full measure of reform and reconstruction that we ought to have. But they would do something to check the fatal working of the endless chain and toward educating the people in the use of bank currency instead of government notes. The Congress will very likely not follow this moderate advice; but the president has put himself squarely on a right platform in the matter, and for that we have, all things considered, reason to be thankful.

(Rep.) The Burlington Hawkeye. (Ia.)

His policy is bold and clear-cut. It may not be, it cannot be, all that the extremists are demanding. Mr. McKinley is conservative and practical. He knows the temper of Congress and the personnel of its members. He knows that little can be expected of the political conglomerate in the Senate. All the president can do is to clearly, lucidly, and courageously map out his policy to them and wait for public sentiment to grow up to his standard.

(Dem.) The Times. (Hartford, Conn.)

The impression likely to be made by the financial portion of the message is that of indisposition to grapple with a subject on which voters disagree.

COMMENT ON THE PRESIDENT'S CUBAN POLICY.

(Rep.) The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

While there are many people in the United States, some of them members of Congress, who are ardent advocates of immediate intervention in behalf of the struggling islanders, the prudence and justice of the president's position cannot fail to appeal to all who weigh dispassionately both the duty and the responsibility of our government in dealing with this important problem.

(Dem.) Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

Patriotic citizens will hardly have the patience to read that portion of the message which discusses the Cuban question. The elaboration of the defense of the administration policy is in itself an exposure of weakness. To reduce a mass of words to a simple proposition, he is not in favor of doing anything for the Cubans, but asks Congress to wait till the Spanish scheme of "autonomy" works itself out.

(Ind.) The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

The message can hardly fail to have a strong influence in Spain and Cuba, as well as in the United States, and we cannot doubt that the influence will be beneficial.

(Rep.) Denver Republican. (Col.)

Apparently the president intends to pursue the do-nothing policy regarding Cuban affairs which he inherited from his latest predecessor, and which he has faithfully pursued up to the present time.

(Dem.) The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

There is no trace of jingoism in the discussion of the attitude of the United States toward Spain and her rebellious colony.

COMMENT ON THE REFERENCES TO HAWAII.

(Dem.) The Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

Certainly, in view of the facts, the president's assertion that there is freedom and self-government on the Sandwich Islands is a surprising one to come from such a source. He must know the government is an oligarchy, wielded by a petty minority.

(Rep.) The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

We have gone so far in the encouragement of the Hawaiians that to withdraw our support now would mean probable revolution and financial ruin. We must keep faith. The islands should be made a territory.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

In the passage relating to Hawaii the president is on familiar ground as regards considerations of both national and party policy and speaks for a positive line of procedure. As a consequence annexation may be set down as a certainty of the near future.

(Dem.) Baltimore Sun. (Md.)

This portion of the message is as weak as that portion of it relating to Cuba is strong. Of the forcible "annexation" of Cuba, says the president, "I cannot speak, for that cannot be thought of. That by our code of morality would be criminal aggression." How much less "forcible" and therefore "criminal," so far as the mass of the Hawaiian people are concerned—that is, nineteen twentieths of the population—will be the "annexation" of those islands, by virtue of a bargain between the president and Senate of the United States and President Dole and the Hawaiian "state"?

(Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

It is gratifying to learn that the annexation of Hawaii need not be retarded by any lack of cordial belief in Japan in the sincerity of our purpose to deal uprightly.

(Ind.) Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

But cruelly wrong, unjust, and mischievous as the annexation of Hawaii would be, its realization seems to be assured, and that despite the fact that neither the people of that country nor this want it annexed.

THE AUSTRIAN CRISIS.

For about two months legislation in Austria has been blocked by disorder in the lower house of the Reichsrath, disorder which developed into hand-to-hand conflicts between opposing factions and led to the resignation of Premier Badeni and his cabinet November 28. The trouble grew out of the race question. The Austrian Empire is made up of many races, animated by strong feelings of rivalry and animosity. The Slav element, which outnumbers the German, has always felt resentment that German should be the official language, and recently gained a concession from the government that Czechic as well as German should be official in Bohemia. This angered the Germans and has been one of the causes of the riots. Another was a disagreement regarding a bill to renew for one year the compact between Austria and Hungary, the point at issue being what Austria's share in the expenses of the dual monarchy should be. The resignation of Count Badeni, who is a Pole, is looked upon by the Germans as a victory for them, and led to such an outbreak of the Czechs in Prague that the city was placed under martial law. The new premier is Baron von Gautsch von Frankenthurn, a German.

COUNT BADENI.
The Late Premier of Austria.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

In the polyglot empire of Francis Joseph it is impossible to do anything to soothe one nationality without arousing fierce opposition in two or three of the rest. There is apparently no alternative between recognizing the "German cement" as the sole element worthy of consideration in the composite Hapsburg monarchy or permitting the little nationalities to wreck the empire.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Should the council again become unruly the emperor might have to fall back upon his one resource, prorogue the Reichsrath again, and, acting under an emergency clause of the constitution, try, single-handed and without parliamentary ratification, to act with the Hungarian legislature in renewing the Austro-Hungarian Alliance. This is exactly what the radical Hungarians will not stand—not because they really object to the manner of the negotiation, but because they are not anxious that the alliance be renewed at all. The situation, therefore, is still precarious in the extreme.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

Austria, having long been dependent for its peace and security on the life of one man, who is now advanced in years, is regarded by politicians as the danger spot in Europe. It is feared that after Francis Joseph will come the deluge. The present wild and stormy scenes in the Reichsrath augur ill for the peace of the empire, and increase the apprehensions that have long been cherished of anarchy and revolution that may ensue at the death of Francis Joseph.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Count Badeni considerately resigned for fear his remaining in office would cause bloodshed. It really seems at times as though a little blood-letting might be a beneficial thing for the Austrian government. Count Badeni deserves to be remembered as a statesman who did his duty to the best of his ability in circumstances of surpassing difficulty, and who erred, if at all, on the side of moderation and leniency. His successor is not to be congratulated upon the task before him.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

The new president of the ministry has a large measure of personal popularity, and that, with his reputation for moderate views, will assist him in meeting one of the most difficult situations a prime minister has ever had to deal with.

BARON VON GAUTSCH VON FRANKENTHURN.
The New Premier of Austria.

SUPREME COURT DECISION CONCERNING INTERSTATE COMMERCE.

ANOTHER blow at the powers of the Interstate Commerce Commission was dealt by the United States Supreme Court in its decision in the Troy (Ala.) case, handed down November 8. The merchants of Troy complained that Section 4 of the Interstate Commerce Act, known as the "long and short haul" clause, was violated by two railroads which charged higher rates from Baltimore, New York, and the East to Troy than from the same points through Troy to Montgomery, fifty-two miles beyond. The railroads claimed that the lower rates to Montgomery were necessary to enable them to compete with water lines; but the Interstate Commerce Commission decided adversely, holding that authority for preference in rates must be obtained from the commission. The case being finally referred to the United States Supreme Court, the opinion of that body was given by Justice Shiras as follows: "Two questions arose in the consideration of the case: First—Could competition caused by rival railroads and water routes be taken into consideration as showing that the circumstances of the two routes were not substantially similar? Second—If the circumstances were found not to be substantially similar could the railroads themselves, in the first instance, without appealing to the commission, make allowance in their schedules of rates for that fact? Both the Circuit Court and the Court of Appeals substantially decided these questions in the affirmative, and in their conclusion the Supreme Court concurs."

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The decision is in the line of common sense and fairness. Practically all the business between the large commercial centers on the Great Lakes and the Atlantic seaboard is taken in competition with the water transportation companies. The water-carriers' rates vary from day to day, and the railroads practically have no way of meeting them. Being under the jurisdiction of the Interstate Commission, while the lake carriers are not, the railroads have been compelled to give three days' notice of intention to change rates. By the expiration of that time the lake carriers have made a still lower reduction in rates. In the movement of emergency freight it is easy to see that the railroads, under such conditions, were at a great disadvantage and could secure very little business. . . . . The decision is one of vast moment to the transportation interests of the country, and is certain to impress upon Congress the urgent need of a complete and radical revision of the interstate law to the end that commerce may be properly regulated without imposing unnecessary hardships upon railroad companies.

The World. (New York, N. Y.)

This decision gives up the whole case. It is an affirmation by the court of the right of railroads to make "discriminative rates" from "competitive points" without granting equivalent rates to non-competitive points. It was precisely to forbid this discrimination that the long and short haul clause was enacted, and so the decision in effect undoes all that Congress intended to accomplish by the enactment of that clause. Whether the new rule will be advantageous or the reverse is a matter of opinion on which men will differ widely. It robs way stations of their right to the same rates that are given to competitive points, and to that extent gives the competitive points an advantage over the way stations. But it may be argued that competition is a publicly valuable factor in commerce, and that those towns where competition exists are entitled to its benefits.

GERMANY SEIZES A CHINESE PORT.

ON November 17 Admiral Diederichs, commanding the German Asiatic Squadron, took possession of three forts on Kiao Chou Bay on the Shantung coast, China. As the Chinese garrisons fled when the German force of six hundred men approached, no shots were fired. This move Germany claims was made that she might be enabled to obtain satisfaction for the recent murder of two German missionaries, and was necessary because China had shown great indifference in the matter of punishing the murderers. The Chinese government, on the contrary, asserts that prompt measures were taken for the capture and punishment of the offenders, four of them having already been arrested when the forts were seized, and that Germany was fully informed of this fact. As China insists upon the abandonment of Kiao Chou Bay as a condition of discussing Germany's demands, a deadlock in the negotiations has resulted. A later despatch says that on December 3 the Germans advanced and seized the city of Kiao Chou, eighteen miles from the bay. There has been much speculation as to the attitude other European nations will take toward Germany's *coup d'état.*

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

It is generally believed that Germany has taken advantage of its claims for indemnity against China for the murder of German missionaries to seize the port of Kiao Chou with the purpose of holding it permanently.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

While Germany's action must be pronounced arbitrary, the western world can find little in it to object to, for it would seem that the eastern problem, as far as it is affected by the position of China, finds its best solution in some sort of division of the Chinese Empire among nations that would open up the country to foreign trade and subject it to the influences of western civilization.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Perhaps he [the Chinese commander of the Kiao Chou forts] really did China a service by his discreet withdrawal. The German ships seem to have been strong enough to capture the forts, and had they done so, at the cost of life, Germany might have insisted with more reason than now on keeping Kiao Chou Bay. At present China has a chance of limiting the indemnity to its proper subjects, although that chance may depend largely on the intervention of Russia or some other power.

The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

In St. Petersburg the press seems to have been instructed by the imperial government to urge the equalization of conditions in the Chinese Empire, not by driving out the Germans, but by taking enough territory all around to give every power an appropriate share in the spoils. In fact, the last thing Russia appears to care for is the preservation of the integrity of Chinese territory, provided that there can be a fair division of the spoils.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

If it suits the czar to let his German cousins establish a foothold in China, Emperor William will, most probably, keep the one he has made. It seems to have been judiciously selected with regard to both land and water advantages, and may probably be made as important to Germany as Hongkong is to England.

The Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

Of course the trouble which is now brewing may not result in actual hostilities, but unless Germany decides to withdraw from China voluntarily and to settle her grievance through the ordinary channels of diplomacy there are sure to be interesting complications.

The Tribune. (Salt Lake City, Utah.)

China will soon conclude that there is no other great power of the world that she can deal with that will not have the ultimate intention of stealing a part of her territory except the United States, and that ought to supply an advantage to us which no other country can gain.

DECISIONS ON CIVIL SERVICE RULES CONFLICT.

THE rule laid down by President McKinley last July that "no removal shall be made from any position subject to competitive examination except for just cause, upon written charges filed with the head of department or other appointing officer, of which the accused shall have full notice and an opportunity to make defense," has led to several cases in the United States courts and to conflicting opinions of judges. The first decision brought prominently before the public was that of Justice Cox of the District of Columbia, who held that the power to appoint conferred upon an officer carried with it the right to remove, and that the rule declared by the president did not deprive him of that right. On the contrary Justice Jackson, of West Virginia, has recently decided that the rules promulgated by the president and the Civil Service Commission are within their scope and power and therefore are binding upon the officers affected by them.

(Dem.) The Sentinel. (Indianapolis, Ind.)

As a question of fact, it seems clear that Judge Jackson's view is the more rational on account of one fact which he states, and that is that "the leaving of discretionary power in the hands of the heads of departments makes the civil service a dead letter." We say this is a fact, for it is so obvious that we think no one can successfully controvert it.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

Judge Jackson's opinion seems to be on the side of common sense, and as it would, if supported, remove almost the last resource of the spoilsmen, the public cannot but hope that it will be sustained.

(Ind.) The Nation. (New York, N. Y.)

The vast progress made by civil service reform is only appreciated when one reflects that we now have an executive rule prohibiting partisan removals, and that the only question is whether this rule possesses the force of law, the administration having made it a feature of its policy, so that it is committed to its enforcement, whatever the courts may finally decide.

(Ind. Rep.) The Evening Transcript. (Boston, Mass.)

We suppose that a cry will go up that Judge Jackson, the great enjoiner, has tied the hands of department chiefs to such an extent as to deprive them of opportunities to get rid of incompetent subordinates, but in fact he has done nothing of the kind. Chiefs who have incompetent or dishonest subordinates have only to prove the latter's incompetency and dishonesty to secure their removal. Only those who try to conceal partisanship under a vaguely official phraseology are interfered with by Judge Jackson.

THE BRITISH AND AMERICAN SEALING CONFERENCE.

SEALING experts representing Great Britain, the Dominion of Canada, and the United States met in Washington from November 10 to 16 and after careful comparison of notes and data unanimously agreed upon a report. This report shows that the Pribyloff herd has noticeably declined in numbers from 1884 to 1897, that pelagic sealing, which destroys large numbers of females, is mainly responsible for this decline, and that the herd is not in danger of actual extermination so long as its haunts on land are protected and the protected zone is maintained. Although, according to Great Britain's specification, the conference was one of experts only, it was made the occasion of a visit to Washington by Sir Wilfrid Laurier, premier of the Dominion of Canada, and Sir Louis Davies, Canadian minister of marine and fisheries. The Canadian visitors, the British embassy, and representatives of the United States State Department held several meetings looking to an agreement concerning the sealing question, but no conclusions were reached, as the Canadian representatives insisted on bringing in other matters at issue between that country and the United States, such as reciprocity, the boundary dispute, border immigration, and the Atlantic fisheries. Since the return home of Premier Laurier and his party it has been reported that he took with him from this government two propositions for submission to the Canadian cabinet: (1) that both nations agree to suspend pelagic sealing for one year, beginning December 1; (2) that representatives of the United States and Great Britain, including Canada, be designated to consider with as little delay as possible all unsettled questions between this country and Canada. It is further reported that the Canadian government has replied that it cannot comply with the first proposal, as an order to suspend pelagic sealing must come from the imperial parliament, which does not meet until February, but that it suggests that the proposed commission be appointed and meet at once.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

If the commission shall settle all these other controversies in a way satisfactory to Canada, pelagic sealing will be suspended. If it does not thus settle them, pelagic sealing will not be suspended. And if the United States does not agree to such a plan, of course pelagic sealing will go on as at present. "Grant us everything we ask, or you will get nothing," is the practical interpretation of that reply.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

In view of Canada's plaintive protest that she couldn't stop pelagic sealing even if she wanted to, it would be interesting to know just what she sent her commissioners to Washington for anyhow.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

Nothing remains but to persuade the Canadians to abandon pelagic sealing. It has all simmered down to a question of dicker. The Canadians are ready, and unless the Yankees have lost their cunning they should have no fear of the result of such a controversy.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Better suffer the last seal to die at the hands of Canadian pelagic hunters than to permit ourselves to be entrapped into assent to any form of reciprocity that Canada is willing to propose.

The Ledger. (Tacoma, Wash.)

The Canadian cabinet desires reciprocity, and ought to have it if a treaty can be arranged mutually just and advantageous. However, as the United States has the most to lose and Canada equally much to gain, there are a few other little questions that should be thrown into the scales to make a balance. The harsh exactions from our fishermen on the Atlantic coast, alien laborers' rights, and the bonding privileges, all need to be adjusted on lines of justice before the privileges of reciprocity are granted.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

The racial, commercial, and social relations between Canada and the United States are necessarily intimate, and it should be the desire of both governments to make them as strong and equitable as possible.

Ohio State Journal. (Columbus.)

A reciprocity agreement applying only to natural products would be of no advantage to the United States and it is not probable that Canada would favor American manufacturers, even if the British government were to permit it. The Canadian policy is to protect home industries and whatever discrimination is made in favor of outside industries is applied to those of England. The difficulties in the way of reciprocity with Canada seem almost insuperable. However, the effort is worth making.

The Toronto Globe. (Canada.)

The question of discrimination against Great Britain will probably not come up at all. It is raised on both sides of the line by people who are eager for objections to any sort of arrangement. There is plenty of room for freer trade relations without treading on this ground. But the result for which we do look forward with some hope is a settlement that will show where each country stands, and put an end to all controversy that is based upon mistaken notions. Even if we maintain tariff barriers like those of the European continent there is no reason why we should follow the example of Europe in other respects.

HAITI'S TROUBLE WITH GERMANY.

THE Black Republic has been greatly disturbed by a difficulty into which it fell with Germany. Early in the fall a young man named Leuders, the son of a German father and a Haitian mother, was arrested by the Haitian authorities at Port au Prince on the charge of resisting officers of the law (who were attempting to arrest his servant) and was sentenced to pay a fine of $500 and undergo a year's imprisonment. The severity of the penalty is explained by the Haitians on the ground of a second offense. The German minister to Haiti intervened and on October 17 went to President Sam and demanded that Leuders be set at liberty and that an indemnity be paid amounting to $1,000 a day for every day Leuders had spent in prison—23 in all; he added that a further indemnity of $5,000 a day would be claimed for every subsequent day he should be confined. Haiti refused to comply with the demand and the German minister broke off diplomatic relations with the republic. Great excitement was roused in the island by the proceedings and United States Minister Powell, in order to relieve the tension, made request that Leuders be released out of courtesy to the United States. His request was granted and Leuders was immediately sent to New York and thence to Germany. On December 6 two German cruisers entered the harbor of Port au Prince and an ultimatum was delivered to Haiti which led that government to accede immediately to the demands of Germany. It is understood that the terms imposed were that Haiti should apologize to Germany, pay Leuders $30,000 and permit him to return to Haiti and live there without danger, and that the president of the republic should graciously receive Count von Schwerin, the German *chargé d'affaires* at Port au Prince.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The main offense from a Haitian point of view, which is also the point of view of the civilized world, is in the honors demanded for Count Schwerin, the German minister, who is said to have acted in a manner contrary to diplomatic etiquette, but quite characteristic of German officials. Whether he did so or not, he certainly rendered himself obnoxious, or, in diplomatic language, *persona non grata*, to the Haitian government, and well-settled diplomatic usage gives that government a right to demand his recall. Instead of being permitted to exercise that right it is obliged to humiliate itself before Count Schwerin, and thus give him more dignity than ever. It is no wonder that the Haitian populace demur to this piece of arrogance, and it would not have been surprising if some act of violence had been committed which would have given the German vessels at Port au Prince an excuse for shelling the place. Happily, Haiti has humiliated herself sufficiently to comply with Germany's hard conditions, and the incident now seems to be closed.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

If Haiti is willing to concede, without appeal to stronger powers, what she regards as an unjust claim, it is, of course, entirely her own affair. Apparently she had more confidence than had the rest of the world in Germany's threat to blow the foundations from under the Black Republic.

The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

The quick submission of Haiti seems to prove that it had a poor case; otherwise it would have resisted payment of the claim presented, at least until it could have submitted the matter to an international tribunal.

THE BANKING SYSTEM OF THE UNITED STATES.

THE annual report of James H. Eckels, comptroller of the currency, for the year ended October 31, 1897, contains an amount of valuable information on banks and banking. After briefly reviewing the history of the legislation constituting the present National Bank Act and calling the attention of Congress to amendments recommended in former reports, Mr. Eckels reiterates the recommendation that the Bank Act be amended to allow banks to issue notes to the full amount of their deposits with the United States. He also calls attention to the superiority of bank notes over government paper, asserting that the volume of federal paper in circulation has more than once jeopardized the credit and injured the business interests of the country. He cites the banking systems of England, France, and Germany as affording examples of how a sound, safe, and elastic bank note issue may be secured. The statistics given concerning national banks show that the total number organized since the first certificate of authority was issued in 1863 has been 5,095. On October 31st last there were 3,617 in active operation, with an authorized capital of $630,230, 295 and a total outstanding circulation of $229,199,880. During the year just closed 44 banks were organized, with an aggregate capital stock of $4,420,000. In the same time 38 were placed in the hands of receivers. Mr. Eckels states that governmental supervision is growing more and more effective as improved methods of handling the affairs of insolvent associations are evolved. There

were paid to creditors of insolvent banks, during the year, $13,169,781, an amount unequaled in any previous year. According to the report there were in the United States, about July 1, 1897, 12,817 incorporated and private banks. The failures during the year amounted to 160, of which 38 were national, 56 state banks and trust companies, 19 savings banks, and 47 private banks. The comptroller dwells at some length on the subject of postal savings banks and shows the operation of the system in the countries in which it is in use. The report also gives the amount of money *per capita* in the principal countries of the world, as follows: United States, $23.70; United Kingdom, $20.65; France, $34.68; Germany, $18.95; Austria-Hungary, $9.33, and Russia, $8.95.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

Comptroller Eckels in his annual report suggests that "Congress should seriously consider such a change in the method of bank note issues as would enable the banks of the country to more adequately meet the demands of trade and commerce in all sections." And the representatives in Congress of all sections ought to be a unit as to the necessity of that change, however they may differ as to other propositions.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

It is easy to talk about taking the government out of the banking business. The comptroller's farewell report proves that much. But he hasn't a word to say as to how the thing can be done without adding to the national debt. That is a problem which Mr. Eckels inherited from his predecessors, and he promptly passes it over to those who are to come after him. If the government is in "the banking business" now, as theorists of the Eckels school would have us believe, it will never get out until it gets out of debt. It has no capital save the evidence of what it owes, and when it has paid those obligations it will be in position to shut up shop and turn its financial affairs over to other hands.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

Under existing conditions we must use a large amount of paper currency in this country, and the true policy to pursue is to have all our paper money issued directly by the government without intervention of banks. Instead of calling in and canceling outstanding legal tenders it would be far better to abolish the currency-issuing function of the banks and to replace their circulation with treasury notes. That cannot be done at present because the charters of many of the national banks run for several years to come, but when these charters expire the power to issue bank notes should be abolished.

A GREAT FIRE IN LONDON.

PROBABLY not since the great fire of 1666 has London been visited with so destructive a conflagration as that which occurred November 19. The fire broke out in Hamsell Street shortly after noon and raged for five hours, destroying about one hundred and fifty warehouses, a number of business blocks, and a few residences, with their contents. The loss is variously estimated at from $5,000,000 to $25,000,000. About 1,500 persons were thrown out of employment, but no lives were lost. Great difficulty was experienced in checking the fire because of the narrowness and crookedness of the streets in the part of London in which it took place. The burned district covers about six acres, bounded by Nicholl Square, Edmunds Place, Jewin, Crescent, Australian Avenue, Paul's Alley, and Red Cross Street. It lies in one of the oldest parts of the city, and near many places of historic interest. The Church of St. Giles, Cripplegate (built in 1545), was barely saved from destruction, after sustaining considerable damage. The vicarage adjoining it was burned. In this church Oliver Cromwell was married and Defoe buried. It contains the tombs of Milton, Foxe, and Frobisher.

The Tribune. (Salt Lake City, U.)

The greatest protection, after all, lies in wide streets and as many parks as a city can afford. To this can be added that care which looks out for inflammable material and prevents its accumulation in large quantities, and the facilities for crushing out fires before they get under dangerous headway.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The causes of the extreme destructiveness of the London fire are not hard to find. The London fire department is not up to date. The fire alarm telegraph system is incomplete, the number of steam fire engines is considerably smaller in London than in Chicago, a great part of the town relies on hand engines for safety in case of fire. The men are not trained, as our American firemen are, to develop quickness of attack on a starting conflagration.

The Courier-Journal. (Louisville, Ky.)

That there should be such a memorable disaster at the beginning of the twentieth century, and in a city which should boast every appliance of science to prevent and check combustion, is a striking comment upon the part which chance must always play in human affairs.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

It has been asserted, and proved, that the firemen were not only not furnished with coal to run the en-

gines at the great fire, but the water supply was short, so that instead of the blame resting on the fire department it should really be placed upon the city authorities who were so improvident and neglectful as to not furnish the means for the firemen to fight the flames.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

There is probably much exaggeration about the magnitude of the loss. It does not compare with that of the great fires of Boston and Chicago, and it is doubtful if it will finally prove to be as great as that of the London fire of 1887. The burned district is not one of warehouses of the highest grade, but was given up to storage of the cheaper grade of goods and to manufacturing. So extensive a fire naturally created something of a scare about insurance companies, but it is likely that when losses are adjusted the companies will make a much better showing than those who were afraid of their shares apprehended.

A CHANGE IN PRESIDENT McKINLEY'S CABINET.

GOVERNOR JOHN W. GRIGGS of New Jersey has accepted the office of attorney-general of the United States to succeed Attorney-General McKenna, who has been appointed to the vacancy in the United States Supreme Court caused by the retirement of Justice Field. Governor Griggs will not resign as chief executive of New Jersey until after the meeting of the state legislature, January 11.

JOHN W. GRIGGS, OF NEW JERSEY.
The New Attorney-General.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The president will find in Mr. Griggs a man of large capacity for public affairs, possessing a trained legal mind and a vast storehouse of mental energy. Governor Griggs is one of that class of farmers' boys to which this country owes so much. He was born and reared in Sussex County, N. J., and from his boyhood days self-reliance was taught him by precept and experience. Largely by dint of his own industry he was able to get a course of study in Lafayette College, from which he was graduated in 1868. After that he studied law, and was admitted to the bar in 1871. He was twenty-six years of age when, in 1876, he took his seat as a member of the assembly. He served two terms in that body and two in the state senate, and as president of the latter body in 1886 presided at the Laverty impeachment trial. Notwithstanding his successes and achievements, Mr. Griggs was never what is known as a "popular" politician. He had always about him that sense of personal dignity and a scorn for shams that kept the sycophants and wire-pullers at arm's length. As a lawyer and constructive statesman he was seen at his best, and in lashing public abuses his pen and tongue were caustic and fearless.

The Kennebec Journal. (Augusta, Me.)

If Governor Griggs of New Jersey shall undertake the duties of attorney-general they will be well performed, or his past career is no criterion.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

Governor Griggs of New Jersey may be well enough qualified for the attorney-generalship, but it is pretty safe to guess that the real reason for his selection is to be sought in its expected political effect in a state which is still counted as doubtful.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

The resignation by Mr. Griggs of the office of governor of New Jersey to accept the position of attorney-general of the United States creates a situation in that state which is somewhat complicated and to assist in the solution of which there is no precedent, as, under the present constitution, no such

JOSEPH J. MCKENNA, OF CALIFORNIA.
The New Justice of the Supreme Court.

vacancy has ever before been filled. The constitution of New Jersey does not provide for any lieutenant-governor, but directs that the duties of the governor, when his position becomes vacant for any reason, shall devolve upon the president of the senate. It is settled that Senator Voorhees of Union County will be chosen president as soon as the senate meets. Then, on the resignation of the governor, the duties of the latter office will devolve upon him. What will his position as a senator henceforth be? The best legal authorities agree that he cannot unite the duties of executive and legislator—cannot, for instance, vote on and sign bills as president of the senate which he may sign or veto as governor. At the same time it seems to be conceded that if he should resign his senatorship he would have no status even after entering the executive chamber as governor.

LORD SALISBURY'S HINT TO FRANCE.

A PORTION of Lord Salisbury's speech at the lord mayor's banquet, held in London November 9, has been regarded by the European press as conveying a distinct warning to France not to interfere with England's rights on the Niger. The following is the part of the speech which has been commented upon: "We do not desire unjust and illegitimate achievements, and we do not wish to take territory simply because it would look well to paint red on the map. Our objects are strictly business. We wish to extend commerce, trade, industry, and civilization; to throw open as many markets as possible and bring together as many consumers and producers as possible, and to open the great natural highways and waterways of the continent. We wish trade to pursue an unchecked course onthe Niger, the Nile, and the Zambesi; but in doing these things, while we wish to behave in a neighborly manner and to show due consideration for the feelings and claims of others, we are obliged to say that there is a limit to the exercise of this particular set of feelings, and we cannot allow our plain rights to be overridden."

THE MARQUIS OF SALISBURY.
Prime Minister of Great Britain.

The Daily Telegraph. (London, England.)

Apart from portions of Africa which may be recognized as of doubtful ownership, and therefore as fit matter for negotiation and arrangement, there have been clear invasions of territory indisputably British. The French government must be held responsible for the actions of those who are their legally or self-constituted agents.

Temps. (Paris, France.)

What a strange idea it is that any country taking hold of colonial possessions owes its success to the prodigal liberality of England! It sounds as if England thinks she has a first mortgage on the continents of the world, and *gives away* what she does not take herself, renouncing of her own free will what she allows others to take. This idea is really at the bottom of all "imperialist" demands. Surely Lord Salisbury is not going to join Chamberlain in the worship of this jingo idol. France as well as England has her rights, and it is for diplomacy to determine them.

Journal des Debats. (Paris, France.)

No one in France ever thought of overriding the "plain" rights of England. It is just because her rights in West Africa are anything but "plain" that a commission has been appointed by her government and ours. Language like that used by Lord Salisbury is therefore unnecessary. We, no more than England, care to annex territory simply because it looks well to have it painted a certain color on the map. What we have in view is the development of our commerce and the cause of civilization in general.

Neue Journal. (Vienna, Austria.)

England has proven herself the perpetual enemy of the whole continent, and now proclaims her right to the exclusive possession of everything valuable in the Niger district. She will not budge till she has found her master, which may happen sooner and more thoroughly than she expects.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

In the event that France is not prepared to go to war with England, the policy of that country will take a conciliatory course. It will not push matters in Africa in a way to stir up ill feeling in England. Doubtless it can do this without seeming to retreat from any position already assumed.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

The real force of a remark depends upon him who utters it. If Bismarck had said what Lord Salisbury has said his meaning would be clear enough. Lord Salisbury, however, is no Bismarck.

SECRETARY GAGE'S PLAN FOR CURRENCY REFORM.

LYMAN J. GAGE.
Secretary of the Treasury.

THE first annual report of Lyman J. Gage, secretary of the treasury, submitted to Congress upon the opening of that body, sets forth a somewhat elaborate plan for the improvement of our banking and currency system. The secretary recommends (1) that a separate department of the treasury be established, to be known as the Issue and Redemption Division. There should be set apart for this division $125,000,000 in gold from the general fund in the treasury, to be used only for redemption purposes, all the silver dollars now held for the redemption of silver certificates, and all the silver bullion and dollars coined therefrom, bought under the Act of 1890. Further, $200,000,000 should be collected and deposited in the division and be paid out only in exchange for gold coin, which when received is to be held as a part of the redemption fund. The secretary recommends (2) the issue of two and one half per cent refunding bonds, payable in gold coin, to take the place of any part or all of the outstanding loans of the United States which mature in the years 1904, 1907, and 1925. To make good any contraction of the currency brought about by these measures Mr. Gage favors an enlarged issue of bank notes and recommends (1) that the organization of national banks with only $25,000 capital be permitted in towns of 2,000 inhabitants or less; (2) that the rate of taxation on circulating notes be reduced to one half of one per cent; (3) that banks be permitted to issue notes to the par value of the refunding bonds they have deposited with the United States treasurer and that they be allowed to deposit greenbacks, treasury notes, or silver certificates to the total amount of $200,000,000, for which the secretary of the treasury may substitute two and one half per cent bonds and for which the banks shall be given national bank notes to an equal amount; (4) that banks that have availed themselves of this privilege and have made deposits and have received bank notes to the amount of fifty per cent of their capital be allowed an additional issue of bank notes to the amount of twenty-five per cent of their deposit; (5 and 6) that the government guarantee all bank notes and secure itself by a tax of two per cent per annum, on the unsecured circulation, used to create a safety fund; (7) that the redemption of notes by the government shall be made from a redemption fund of ten per cent maintained by the banks;(8) that the issue of bank notes be restricted to denominations of $10 and upward.

(Ind.) The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

The plain citizen will naturally conclude that if the government is to assume the risk of loss on the paper currency of the nation it may as well take the profits of its issue also. It is as easy to provide for the redemption of its own notes as it is for the redemption of the notes of the banks, and certainly the saving of interest on from $200,000,000 to $800,000,000 of bonds is not to be despised.

(Rep.) Omaha Bee. (Neb.)

The free silver organs that have discussed the plan have unreservedly condemned it. With these elements in opposition and powerful in Congress, it is perfectly obvious that Secretary Gage's plan for revising the currency system hasn't the ghost of a chance of being accepted, nor will any plan which shall come from the monetary commission have a better chance of being adopted.

(Ind.) The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

The most unsatisfactory feature of Secretary Gage's currency plan is his suggestion for the continued use of national bonds as the basis of circulation. That provision is not in conformity with scientific banking principles, as the secretary himself doubtless would admit.

(Dem.) Times-Union and Citizen. (Jacksonville, Fla.)

Every party in the country agrees that our national finances need reform. Whether Mr. Gage's plan is the best possible we do not venture to say, but it has consistency and simplicity, and, so far at least, is far better than the heterogeneous and complicated system now afflicting the country—one which favors nobody but the jobber and the stock gambler.

(Rep.) The Hartford Courant. (Conn.)

This is as far as possible from the government's going out of the banking business. It is just the opposite: the government goes in further. The project is in the main an improvement of the existing law, mainly in increasing the number of banks and in making the issue of currency easier. But it is a long way from the expected and needed reform.

(Ind.) Indianapolis News. (Ind.)

It is not radical, but it is comprehensive. Under

it the government would be on a gold basis, and our demand debt would be put in process of extinguishment. The extension of bank facilities is much to be desired, and the substitution of bank currency for government currency is proper and scientific. A careful study may reveal defects in the scheme, but on its face it has much to commend it.

(Dem.) Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

That portion of Mr. Gage's report which pertains to the subject of finance is a plea for the banks, from exordium to peroration. There is not a sentence of comfort for the people. It is a shout for gold, gold, gold, and a continuous deprecation of silver. It is a sermon in favor of taking from the government the function of issuing currency and putting the people at the mercy of banking corporations.

(Rep.) The Kansas Capital. (Topeka.)

These recommendations are obviously not intended as a specific and complete cure for the financial troubles of the treasury. But they are in the line of treatment that, followed up consistently, will in a few years give the country a currency system as stable, sound, and respected as any country on the globe.

INSURANCE COMPANIES AND STATE OFFICIALS.

In Missouri and Kansas certain state officials are making it difficult for insurance companies to carry on business. In Missouri a union of companies adopting a uniform scale of agents' commissions and other regulations was recently enlarged, with the result that the attorney-general has begun *quo warranto* proceedings against seventy-one foreign fire insurance companies doing business in the state, on the charge that they have violated the anti-trust law of Missouri. In Kansas trouble has been experienced for a number of years, but in the early part of last November District Judge Hazen, of Topeka, decided that sixty-one eastern fire companies have violated the state anti-trust law by entering into combination, and he also held that State Insurance Superintendent Webb McNall was legally empowered to revoke the license of any company that would not leave the combine. But it is with Superintendent McNall that the companies have had the greatest difficulty. He refused to grant a license to the New York Mutual Life Insurance Company, claiming that the company had not dealt fairly with Mrs. Hillmon, a widow who has now in the courts a suit against the company for $20,000. A short time ago Judge Williams, of the federal district court, granted an injunction against McNall, ordering him to grant a license to the company and forbidding him to interfere in any way with its business. The court also enjoined him from revoking the license of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, which refused to pay a claim of Mrs. Hillmon's. Superintendent McNall refuses to obey the order of the judge and the affair may be carried to the Supreme Court of the state.

(Rep.) The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

Judge Williams does not in his decision, at any point or in any place, prevent the state of Kansas from enforcing its laws. The decision simply prevents Mr. McNall from bringing a suit which he is not authorized by law to bring. It prevents Mr. McNall from assuming jurisdiction of the federal court and usurping its powers, deciding the Hillmon cases in advance and ordering their claims paid. As Webb McNall is not the state of Kansas, the enjoining of Mr. McNall is not an injunction on the state.

(Dem.) The Kansas City Times. (Mo.)

If there is in the Supreme Court a sense of justice capable of successfully combating the greed for power which has prompted the invention of the injunction, then it will be declared that federal judges have not this despotic power over all things human. In that event, government by injunction will be killed at one blow.

(Rep.) Denver Republican. (Col.)

It should be observed in this connection that the rule is for federal courts to follow the interpretation given by the courts of a state to its laws. In this case the whole question is one of the interpretation of a state law. What the federal court has done is to step in and claim the right to dictate to an officer of a state how he shall discharge his duties under a state law. Practically it is an attempt to dictate to the supreme court of Kansas how it shall interpret the laws of that state.

The Journal of Commerce. (New York, N. Y.)

The result will more than make up for the trouble and expense inflicted if the final decision clips the wings of the various insurance superintendents and commissioners very materially. With rare exceptions they know almost nothing of insurance, and instead of guarding the interests of policy-holders they simply increase the cost of insurance by worthless examinations and charges for taxes and license fees.

Insurance World. (Pittsburg, Pa.)

We trust that . . . the discretionary power hitherto freely exercised by state insurance officials will be greatly reduced. Decency requires that in this nation no company should be permitted to be shut out from a state when it complies with its laws and reasonable requirements. We hope this will be the death of official, irresponsible tyranny.

DR. THOMAS W. EVANS.

DR. THOMAS W. EVANS.

DR. THOMAS W. EVANS, "the American dentist of Paris," died in that city November 15. Although Dr. Evans had spent most of his life abroad he was a thorough American. He was born in Philadelphia in 1823. After an ordinary school education he became apprenticed to a goldsmith and displayed so much skill and ingenuity in making plates that he determined to be a dentist. With this in view he attended Jefferson Medical College and took a special medal when only eighteen. Three years later he went to Paris to represent American dental surgery at a convention and decided to start in business in that city. He was not long in gaining an extensive practice among the nobility, partly because he was practically the first dentist in Europe to use gold filling. Soon he gained access to monarchs, and eventually it was said there was not a royal family in Europe he had not attended. He formed a close friendship with Napoleon III. and when Paris fell into the hands of the Germans in 1871 it was he who effected Eugénie's escape from the country. Dr. Evans' knowledge of medicine and surgery was such that during the Crimean War he was sent by Napoleon to study the sanitary condition of European camps, and at the time of the Franco-Prussian War rendered similar service. During our Civil War he came to the United States, organized the National Sanitary Commission, and used his influence with Napoleon to prevent him from recognizing the Confederacy. This fall Dr. Evans again came to the United States. He spent over a month visiting various cities and formed plans to utilize a large part of his extensive fortune in educational enterprises for the benefit of his native land. Dr. Evans always liberally aided others with his wealth. His most substantial gift to the public was the Lafayette Home in Paris, designed to furnish a home for American women studying in that city.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

Dr. Evans was the first American dentist to win wide celebrity and fortune in Europe. He did not, as has been sometimes said, revolutionize dental surgery. He did call European attention to the merits of American dentistry, the result, perhaps, being as much due to his worldly tact as to his mechanical bent and his skill as a dentist, in the last two of which qualities he was equaled by hundreds of American dentists. It is still true that Americans make the best dentists, because of their mechanical skill, their quickness, their energy, which enables them to do nearly twice as much work in a day as a foreign dentist can do and to keep it up day after day; and to these natural qualities are added in American dentists the superior training of the American dental schools, to which students come from all parts of the world. In every European city of any extent American dentists have won reputation and fortune.

Cincinnati Enquirer. (O.)

Dr. Thomas W. Evans was a remarkable man and an honor to his native country. He was a man of affairs, and did more than any other person, probably, to give deserved dignity to one of the newest and most useful professions.

FOOTBALL.

THE last of the great football games about which the interest of a season centers occurred during the past month. First among these was the encounter between Yale and Harvard, who after a lapse of two years renewed friendly relations on the Harvard field at Cambridge on November 13. Neither side was able to score. Just a week later games were played between Yale and Princeton at New Haven and Pennsylvania and Harvard at Philadelphia. The first of these, contrary to general expectations, was a victory of 6 to 0 for Yale. In the second Pennsylvania won by 4 to 0. Opposition to football on account of its roughness has culminated in Georgia, where a player was recently killed during a game, in the passage of a bill by the legislature forbidding the playing of football where an admission is charged.

The Argus. (Albany, N. Y.)

As to net results, Pennsylvania beats Harvard 15 to 6; wherefore, as Yale could not beat Harvard, Pennsylvania takes first place. Yale, which could not beat Harvard, beats Princeton 6 to 0—a result which may change Yale's satisfaction at the results achieved in the game with Harvard to curses in that it was no better.

Cincinnati Commercial Gazette. (O.)

The game of football should not be abolished or

made a misdemeanor by legislation, and there is no probability that it will be, in spite of the present outcry against it on the part of numerous people. But the game should be amended and altered by its friends in order that its sometimes dangerous feature, in the shape of "mass plays," may be eliminated..

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

As we have recently said, it is not the few fatalities, but the many injuries, which constitute the soundest objection to the modern style of play. The list of recent casualties is numerically appalling, and the sum of serious injuries entailing more or less interruption of studies in addition to the pain and the cost of cure is unwarrantably large. Moreover, it is a fact not to be ignored that an injury from which a quick and complete recovery seems to have been made may have remoter consequences which cannot be foreseen or perhaps accurately traced back to their source.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

Even in the prize ring, when one is down, his person is sacred; but not so in this highly civilized game educationally called football.

Providence Journal. (R. I.)

It will be impossible to prevent accidents. A man is liable to be thrown heavily while running with the ball, as was the case in one of the fatalities of the present season. But let us remember that it is the inexperienced, the unfit player who usually suffers most. It should be understood to begin with that the modern game of football is not a pastime for infants and invalids. It is designed for young men who are trained to the best possible condition, and who propose to use some brawn in it as well as brain.

The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

Energy and decision are two of the most useful forces in human life, and the man who has them in large measure is very fortunate. In so far as university training may tend to weaken either by the development of antagonistic traits there is need of an antidote. Perhaps that is why football has gained such immense vogue in the higher institutions of learning in the United States. Possibly the students unconsciously realize their need of a form of training which means dash, daring, instant choice of methods, and absolutely unchecked energy in executing all plans adopted.

The Medical Record. (New York, N. Y.)

In view of the great number of serious accidents on the football field between college teams, it is impossible any longer to view the game in the light of innocent recreative amusement with harmless and healthful athletics as its object. It is certainly time we should look the matter fairly in the face. If we wish to develop pluck, courage, endurance, and strength, we can do so in more healthful and safer ways. It is time that the new game, with mere weight against weight, should be abolished.

A PERSISTENT WOMAN SUFFRAGIST.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

New Hampshire has more politics to the square foot than any other New England state. At a distance it hardly seems as if this was a fact, but that is because all of the politics is not on the surface. New Hampshire abounds with surprises. The most persistent and most conspicuous of late surprises is Mrs. Marilla M. Ricker. Mrs. Ricker is the first woman in the country who ever tried to vote. That was twenty-seven years ago. She went boldly to the selectmen of her ward and asked to have her name put on the voting list. The selectmen were paralyzed with astonishment, but, yielding to her eloquence—perhaps it was a mere show of gallantry on their part—they did as she requested. Three days later, to their aggravated astonishment, Mrs. Ricker came to the polls and tried to vote the straight Republican ticket. Her vote was challenged by the Democrats. Thus she was the pioneer of the woman voters.

Early last summer she petitioned the president to appoint her minister to the United States of Colombia. Two prominent politicians forthwith announced their opposition. Mrs. Ricker's ambition was defeated. But that was no discouragement. So, last week, she declared that she would contest the eastern congressional seat with Congressman Cyrus A. Sulloway of Manchester. Again the politicians laugh. But Mrs. Ricker is serious. She avers that she will continue to fight for the principle of feminine representation.

This is the essence of her views: "I say to all women, Get the ballot! That is the first thing. Women have quite as much interest in good government as men, and I fail to see why they should be cut off from the ballot-box. If taxation without representation was tyranny before the Revolution—and it is generally conceded to have been one of the great causes of the war—then it is equal tyranny today. Women are taxed under the laws, are put into prisons and are hanged under the laws, and they should have a voice in the making of laws. In other words, if women are citizens, they should have all the rights of citizens. A man said to me not long ago, 'The ballot does not make men happy, rich, or respectable.' I at once replied, 'I admit that, but they guard it with sleepless jealousy.' Why? Because they know it is the golden gate to every opportunity; and precisely the kind of advantage it gives one sex it would give the other."

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

November 7. Consul-General Lee leaves Washington for Havana.——A vein of Bessemir iron ore 77 feet deep and 40 feet wide is discovered on the Menomonee Range, Michigan.

November 8. Dr. W. F. Godfrey Hunter receives formal appointment as minister to Guatemala and Honduras.

November 11. The president appoints C. P. Bryan of Illinois minister to China and Sardis Summerfield United States attorney for the district of Nevada.

November 15. The Supreme Court of the United States decides against claimants for land grants in New Mexico.

November 17. The general assembly of the Knights of Labor, in session at Louisville, Ky., passes resolutions against an arbitration treaty between the United States and England.

November 18. The committee on organization of the Citizens' Union of New York decides to continue the organization as a permanent political force in the city.

November 19. The Tammany Hall executive committee votes to give $20,000 to Cuba and an equal amount to the poor of New York.

November 20. The Chicago *Inter Ocean* passes into the hands of a syndicate under the leadership of Charles T. Yerkes.——The floods in the state of Washington are checked by extremely cold weather.

November 21. President Eliot of Harvard University issues a statement defending inter-collegiate football.

November 23. Henry S. Boutell is elected to succeed the late Congressman E. D. Cook in the sixth congressional district of Illinois.

November 25. More than 30,000 of the Creek Indians appear before the Dawes Commission for enrollment.

November 27. Twelve thousand Illinois coal-miners resume work after winning their fight.

November 28. Two steamers arrive at Seattle from Alaska with twenty-five returning gold-seekers who left Dawson the middle of October. These miners declare that the food shortage at that time almost amounted to famine.

November 29. Baron von Halleben, the recently appointed German ambassador, presents his credentials to President McKinley.

December 1. The residence of the late Henry W. Sage of Ithaca is presented to Cornell University for a students' hospital, and besides being well equipped it is endowed with $100,000.

December 2. Mrs. McKinley, mother of President McKinley, is stricken with paralysis.

FOREIGN.

November 7. The threatened crisis in the cotton industry at Manchester, England, is averted by the spinners' agreeing to submit to arbitration the proposed reduction of wages.

November 8. The charges against Signor Crispi, ex-premier of Italy, in connection with the bank scandals are annulled by the Court of Cassation at Rome.——Horatio David Davies is installed lord mayor of London.——Marshal Blanco issues an edict granting full pardon to all Cuban rebels who have been persecuted for rebellion.

November 9. Count Nishi succeeds Count Okum as foreign minister of Japan.

November 10. Galif Bey, Turkish ambassador at Berlin, is dismissed by the sultan.

November 16. The Whitney ministry, Newfoundland, formally resigns.

November 18. The complete pacification of the Philippine Islands is reported from Madrid.——The family of Captain Dreyfus claim that the documents he was charged with selling to Germany were never really sold to the agents of that country but were prepared in imitation of Dreyfus' handwriting to blackmail him.

November 20. Russia demands that Turkey pay arrears of the Russo-Turkish War idemnity.

November 21. The steamer *Victoria* returns to Tromsoe from Spitzbergen without having obtained any news of Andree.

November 22. The Spanish cabinet approves a plan of Cuban autonomy except as to tariff.——The Turkish government announces postponement of reorganization of the navy.

November 23. General Weyler arrives in Barcelona, Spain, and is greeted by 20,000 cheering people.——Marshal Blanco is authorized to use $100,000 for relief of the Cuban peasants.

November 24. Earthquake shocks in Saxon Thuringia damage the famous railroad viaduct of the Goeltzsch valley, rendering it impassable for some time to come.

November 28. Members of the Austrian ministry resign. Troops guard the royal palace.

NECROLOGY.

November 15. General Albert Ordway, formerly chief of ordnance in the United States army.

November 17. Rev. Dr. George Hendricks Houghton, for nearly fifty years rector of the Church of Transfiguration in New York ("The Little Church Around the Corner").

November 19. Rev. Dr. William Seymour Tyler, professor of Greek at Amherst College.

November 20. Henry Calderwood, professor of moral philosophy in the University of Edinburgh.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR JANUARY.

First Week (ending January 8).

"Imperial Germany." Chapter XIV.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XV.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"The City of Berlin."
Sunday Reading for January 2.

Second Week (ending January 15).

"Imperial Germany." Appendix.
"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XVI.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Schools and Education in the American Colonies."
"The Social Habits of Insects."
Sunday Reading for January 9.

Third Week (ending January 22).

"The Social Spirit in America." Chapter XVII.
"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter I.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"The Geographical Position of Germany."
"The Sovereigns of Italy in Germany."
Sunday Reading for January 16.

Fourth Week (ending January 29).

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter II.
"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter I.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"Lessing."
Sunday Reading for January 23.

FOR FEBRUARY.

First Week (ending February 5).

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter III.
"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter II.
In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:
"The Rhine Country."
Sunday Reading for January 30.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR JANUARY.

First Week.

1. Essay—The great men of Germany.
2. A Paper—The rivers of Germany.
3. An Address—A visit to the principal cities of Germany.
4. Book Review—"The Art of Living," by Robert Grant.
5. Table Talk—The news of the week.

Second Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. Essay—Insect life.
3. A Paper—German politics.
4. General Discussion—Sunday recreation.
5. Table Talk—The president's message.*

Third Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Paper—Religious organizations and their methods of doing practical work.
3. An Essay—The curriculum in a boarding school for young ladies.
4. An Address—The relation of Germany to the other European powers.
5. Table Talk—Germany and China.*

Fourth Week.

Pliny Day—January 23.

Nothing, I allow, excites me so much as the desire of having my name handed down to posterity; a passion highly worthy of the human breast, especially of his who, not being conscious of any crime, fears not to be known to future generations.—*Pliny.*

1. A Character Study—Pliny.
2. A Biographical Sketch — Tacitus, Pliny's friend.
3. An Essay—Pliny's contemporaries.
4. A Talk—Pliny's literary work.
5. A Paper—Pliny's attitude toward the Christians.

FOR FEBRUARY.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. An Illustrated Talk—The ancient city of Rome.
3. An Essay—Missionary work in ancient times.
4. An Essay—Migration, its causes and results.
5. A Paper—The Byzantine Empire.
6. General Conversation—Current news.

*See *Current History and Opinion.*

QUESTIONS ON "THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

The following questions on "The Social Spirit in America," prepared by Prof. C. R. Henderson, may be used as subjects for interesting discussions at the weekly meetings of the circle:

Chapter XV.—Charity and Correction.

Distinguish between poverty and pauperism.
Why not let paupers starve?

What classes of children need public care?

Give an account of various measures for dealing with the "unemployed."

What are the objects of "charity organization"?

Chapter XVI.—The Social Spirit in Conflict with Anti-Social Institutions.

What motives support the drink evil?

Give the main points in the history of the temperance movement.

What are some of the allies of this effort?

Describe the Gothenburg system.*

Tell of any other reform movement in your town.

Chapter XVII.—The Institution of Ideals.

What is the relation of Christianity to progress?

What is the social function of the church?

What is an "institutional church"?

What is the Y. M. C. A.?

How would you organize a home department of the Sunday-school?

* See "How the Gothenburg System Works," in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for January, 1897.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

P. 314. "Landsgerichte" [länts'gā-rĭkt-e].——"Amtsgerichte" [ämts'gā-rĭkt-e].

P. 315. "Corps d' Armee" [kōr dar-ma']. Army Corps.

P. 317. "Abgeordnetenhaus" [ab'ga-ord-net-en-hous]. House of Deputies.

P. 322. "Holy See." The see of Rome.

P. 322. "The Ultramontane party" in German politics is the Center party and it opposes any legislation unfriendly to the Church of Rome.

"A SHORT HISTORY OF MEDIÆVAL EUROPE."

P. 12. "Prætorian guard." A member of the body of troops which attended the prætor or the general of the republic. In rank and pay they were above the ordinary soldiers and they acquired sufficient power to depose and appoint emperors.

P. 17. "*Comitatus.*" A Latin word meaning an escort, a retinue. "*Gefolge*" is the German word having the same meaning.

P. 19. "*Esprit de corps*" [es-prē' de kōr]. The spirit which animates a body of people.

P. 21. "Haruspices" [ha-rus'pi-cēz]. The plural form of haruspex.

"ROMAN LIFE IN PLINY'S TIME."

P. 19. "The age of the Antonines" is the period in Roman history which includes the reign of Antoninus Pius and that of Marcus Aurelius, who reigned from 161 to 180 A. D.

P. 19. "Legouvé'" [le-goo-vā']. A French author.

P. 19. "Trajan." A Roman emperor from 98 to 117 A. D.

P. 20. "Tullia." The daughter of Cicero.——"Tusculan disputations." One of Cicero's works containing conversations which he represents as having taken place at Tusculum, his estate.

P. 21. "Boissier." A French writer and scholar. He is the author of several works on Roman archeology, "Cicero and his Friends," "The Opposition under the Cæsars," and other works.——"Fronto." An orator and rhetorician of Rome.

P. 31. "Lares" [lā'rēz]. The Latin plural of *lar;* tutelary gods which were considered protectors of the household and of the state.——"*Bulla.*" An ornament worn about the neck as an amulet by Roman children. It was laid aside when they reached maturity and dedicated to the household Lares by the young men. The young women consecrated it to Juno.

P. 32. "Cornutus." A stoic philosopher of Rome. He lived in the first century.

P. 32. "Liberalia." A Roman festival celebrated in honor of Liber, the Italian god of wine, March 17, the day on which youths received the manly toga (*toga virilis*).——"*Toga prætexta.*" The outer garment, having a purple border, worn by Roman youths until they assumed the *toga virilis.*

P. 33. "Lamiæ." Witches who were said to draw blood from children's veins.

P. 34. "Sappho." A Greek lyric poet who lived about 600 B. C.

P. 34. "Suetonius" [swē-tō'ni-us]. A Roman biographer and historian of the second century A. D.

P. 34. "Martial." A Latin poet of the first century A. D.

P. 35. "Condorcet" [kôN-dor-sā']. A French political writer, mathematician, and philosopher.

P. 44. "Apuleius" [ap-ū-lē'us]. A rhetorician and philosopher of Rome. He was born about 125 A. D.

P. 52. "Aquamarine." A fine beryl having a bluish-green tint.

P. 54. "*Stola.*" A long outer garment, falling to the ankles, worn by Roman women.

P. 56. "Arria." The wife of Cæcina Pætus, who, convicted as a traitor, was condemned to kill him-

self. He hesitating to do it, his wife took the dagger and stabbed herself, saying as she returned it to her husband, "It does not hurt." He immediately put an end to his own life. Her daughter, also named Arria, was the wife of Thrasea, a lover of liberty and freedom. He was condemned to death and his wife would have died with him had he not entreated her to save her life for the sake of their daughter Fannia. The daughter accompanied her husband, who was exiled by the order of Nero.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"THE CITY OF BERLIN."

1. "Champs-Elysées" [shon zā-lē-zā']. A park and magnificent avenue of Paris. On each side of the avenue are handsome buildings and it is one of the most fashionable promenades in the city.

2. "Great Kurfürst." Great Elector.

3. "Lustgarten." One of the fine squares of Berlin.

4. "*Gymnasien.*" The plural of *gymnasium;* a grammar-school.

5. "Mascagni" [mäs-kän'yē]. An Italian musical director and composer.

"SCHOOLS AND EDUCATION IN THE AMERICAN COLONIES."

1. "Rule of Three." A term applied to the method of obtaining the fourth term of a proportion when the other three terms are given; compound proportion was known as the Double Rule of Three. The Golden Rule is another term for the Rule of Three.——"Rule of Fellowship." The rule for distributing profit and loss among the partners in proportion to his share of stock.——"Rule of False." Another term for rule of trial and error; the process of finding the value of an unknown quantity by assuming an approximate value for the unknown quantity and from the data given in the question determining its value.

"THE SOCIAL HABITS OF INSECTS."

1. "Saint-Simon." A philosopher of France who lived from 1760 to 1825. He was the founder of French socialism.——"Fourier" [foo-ryā']. A French socialist born in 1772. He died in 1837.——"Owen" (1771–1858). The founder of socialism in England.——"Karl Marx" (1818–83). A socialist of Germany.

2. "*Raison d' être.*" A French phrase meaning reason for existence.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"IMPERIAL GERMANY."

1. Q. To what does Germany owe her present preponderant position? A. To her great men, to the organization they have effected, and to the excellent qualities of the race.

2. Q. In what is every difference of creed and party submerged? A. In the high sense of duty and an earnest devotion to work.

3. Q. In what is this particularly observable? A. In the honesty of the administration of the country.

4. Q. Architecturally, what do the modern public buildings of Germany show? A. A grandeur and solidity of monumental architecture rarely met elsewhere.

5. Q. What is one of the indirect evidences of healthy national life? A. The excellent municipal organization.

6. Q. What is the center of influence? A. The army.

7. Q. What is perhaps the most useful lesson the study of Germany teaches us to-day? A. That *laissez-faire* as a system of social and political advancement is no longer the only shibboleth to swear by.

8. Q. What is the character of the history of Germany since 1815? A. It has been one of continual growth from monarchical toward constitutional government.

9. Q. At the outbreak of the French Revolution of what was Germany composed? A. Of nearly three hundred petty states, principalities, and cities without political unity.

10. Q. For what purpose was the Congress of Vienna called together? A. To define boundaries and settle European disputes.

11. Q. What was the first result of the political struggles after 1816? A. The National Assembly at Frankfort in 1848.

12. Q. From 1850 to 1871 what was the direct outcome of Bismarck's policy? A. The growth of Prussian power.

13. Q. What is the character of the German Confederation? A. It is a union of states of different forms of government under an hereditary head with imperial powers.

14. Q. Of what two houses is the legislative part of the imperial government composed? A. The Federal Council (Bundesrath) and the House of Representatives (Reichstag).

15. Q. How are the fortified towns of Germany

connected? A. By underground telegraph wires and by a strategic system of railroads.

16. Q. What four great political parties arose in Germany after 1871? A. The Conservative, Center, National-Liberal, and the Social Democracy.

17. Q. What has been the principal question since the formation of the empire? A. That of the position of the Catholics and the pope with reference to the government throughout the empire.

"THE SOCIAL SPIRIT IN AMERICA."

1. Q. What are the best relief agencies? A. Those which tend to make themselves unnecessary.

2. Q. To what does all rational charity tend? A. To sincere fraternity, and to the development of self-reliance and self-support.

3. Q. What is the real problem of charity? A. To rid society of its degenerate members.

4. Q. What is one method proposed for the prevention of degeneracy? A. The adoption by the entire nation of methods of life which will not deprave human life.

5. Q. What is a social defense against crime and vagrancy? A. Compulsory education.

6. Q. In almost every state what is one of the first public institutions to be established by taxation? A. An asylum for the insane.

7. Q. What are two agencies for discriminating between honest workingmen and the tramp? A. Labor bureaus to provide information and the labor test.

8. Q. What does the work test sometimes reveal? A. That some of the unemployed are strong and willing but have never learned a trade.

9. Q. What seems to be the chief recommendation of the suburban garden scheme? A. Its educational value.

10. Q. What are some of the objects of a charity organization society? A. To obtain full information concerning dependent persons in the neighborhood, to aid the needy, and to study the social conditions of the community.

11. Q. In dealing with the drink question what is the first duty suggested? A. A study of the history and causes of the drink evil.

12. Q. In whose studies did the temperance movement originate? A. Those of Dr. Benjamin Rush.

13. Q. What is at present the most conspicuous organization in the temperance movement? A. The Woman's National Christian Temperance Union.

14. Q. What reform is carried out in organic connection with the crusade against alcohol? A. The social purity reform.

15. Q. What is an important factor in the promotion of temperance reform? A. Instruction in the schools.

16. Q. What is claimed for the Norwegian method of dealing with the liquor traffic? A. That it would work educationally toward abolishing the traffic.

17. Q. What is the object of the "Pleasant Sunday Afternoon"? A. To furnish recreation for weary working people.

18. Q. What is the specific function of the church? A. To administer to the religious wants of man.

19. Q. To what should the local church minister? A. To the whole complex nature of man.

20. Q. What is a characteristic social institution of the American church? A. The Young Men's Christian Association.

"ROMAN LIFE IN PLINY'S TIME."

1. Q. By what was the age of the Antonines characterized? A. By a number of transformations in the manners of the Romans.

2. Q. What was one of the most interesting of these? A. That which took place in the attitude of fathers toward their children.

3. Q. Under the republic what sentiment was lacking toward childhood? A. Affection.

4. Q. What authors made an appeal for more attention to children? A. Favorinus and Plutarch.

5. Q. Who was among the first to put a check on the business of the *comprachicos*? A. Trajan.

6. Q. In what did his correspondence with Pliny show him to be interested? A. In organizing public aid for abandoned children.

7. Q. About what do the writers of the first century mourn? A. The enfeeblement of paternal authority.

8. Q. Under the Antonines in what were the emperors much interested? A. In the establishment of schools.

9. Q. Who was the first to pay the Greek and Latin rhetoricians? A. Vespasian.

10. Q. Who was the first to establish student aid funds? A. Trajan.

11. Q. What was the object of the Roman education? A. To acquire the art of oratory.

12. Q. Under the republic how did the young Romans train themselves in oratory? A. By listening at the forum to a noted speaker and afterward declaiming at home.

13. Q. What were the principal subjects of the schoolroom drill in oratory under the empire? A. Political subjects relating to the past.

14. Q. What course did the Roman youths choose when they assumed the *toga virilis*? A. That which led to languid pleasure, and riches and power easily acquired.

15. Q. In the education of a Roman girl what was the first lesson taught? A. The duties belonging to her sex, especially weaving and spinning.

16. Q. What was the object of the mental training that many Roman girls received? A. Preparation for social life.

17. Q. What class of girls often received a very complete education? A. Patrician girls.

18. Q. At what age did Roman girls complete their education? A. At the age of fourteen.

19. Q. After the empire was established, by what considerations was the choice of a husband or wife determined? A. Considerations of convenience, rank, and fortune.

20. Q. According to the law what was the marriageable age for girls? A. Twelve years.

21. Q. What was the most important equipment for a girl? A. A dowry.

22. Q. From the earliest period of Roman history what position in the home was occupied by the wife? A. She was queen in the atrium.

23. Q. How did Augustus attempt to improve the morals of society? A. By causing two laws to be passed—the Julian Law and the Papia Poppæan Law.

24. Q. How did the extension of Roman commerce affect the women? A. It made luxury in dress an absolute necessity to them.

25. Q. What impression regarding morals may be obtained from Pliny's letters? A. Under Trajan morals seemed to become purer.

A SHORT HISTORY OF MEDIÆVAL EUROPE.

1. Q. By what has the history of Europe been greatly influenced? A. By the general contour of the grand division and the physical features of the country.

2. Q. How have mountains affected the political divisions of Western Europe? A. They have prevented the formation of extensive states and governments.

3. Q. In the third century what were the boundaries of the Roman Empire? A. The Atlantic on the west, the Euphrates on the east, the Sahara on the south, and the Danube, Main, and Rhine Rivers on the north.

4. Q. When and how did the Roman Republic become a monarchy? A. In 27 B. C. Octavius usurped the power by concentrating in himself the most important offices which had previously been elective.

5. Q. What was the result of this change? A. Peace and order were restored by the emperor.

6. Q. What change did the early emperors make in the laws? A. They introduced a humane spirit into the laws.

7. Q. What was the policy of Rome in regard to her subjects? A. To Romanize them.

8. Q. What fatal mistake was made in the establishment of the empire? A. No law of succession was established.

9. Q. By what were the last traces of republican rule destroyed? A. By the reforms of Diocletian.

10. Q. Into what classes were the inhabitants of the empire divided? A. Slaves, plebs, curiales, and senators.

11. Q. Who were regarded as curiales? A. All who owned twenty-five acres of land or its equivalent.

12. Q. What burdens fell to the curiales? A. Those of office-holding and the taxes.

13. Q. At the beginning of the period under discussion what territory was occupied by the Germans? A. Scandinavia, and nearly all the land between the Rhine and the Vistula, and the Baltic and the Danube.

14. Q. What was the form of their government? A. Democratic, with a well-defined system of local self-government.

15. Q. What territory was occupied by the Slavs? A. A large belt of territory east of the Germans extending into Russia.

16. Q. What was the attitude of the Christian Church as a whole toward the Roman state? A. Friendly.

17. Q. When was the first edict of toleration published? A. In April, 311.

18. Q. By whom was Christianity made the only legal religion? A. The emperors Gratian (375–383) and Theodosius (379–395).

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—IV.

1. When and by whom was the Fürstenbund established?

2. What design of Emperor Joseph II. was frustrated by the Fürstenbund?

3. When was the dismemberment of Poland concerted?

4. With whom did the plan originate?

5. What troubles agitated the last years of the reign of Frederick William III.?

6. What league was formed by this king?

7. By what war was Austria as a German power extinguished?

8. By what treaty was this war concluded?

9. When and where did the first German Reichstag assemble?

10. What honor did the German National Assembly offer to Frederick William IV. of Prussia? Why did he decline it?

GERMAN LITERATURE.—IV.

1. What city has been called the German Athens?

2. What was the character of Christian Weise's poetry?

3. When did he gain his greatest popularity?

4. The succeeding betterment of German literature was due to the influence of what French authors?

5. What effect had the death of William I. of Prussia on literary development?

6. What German dramatist was born about the time of Shakespeare's death?

7. Which of his works deals with one of Shakespeare's own themes?

8. Who was the first man to substitute the German for the Latin language as the medium of instruction?

9. When did Johann Christian Günther live?

10. What man in the middle of the eighteenth century was equally noted as a scholar, a critic, and a poet?

NATURE STUDIES.—IV.

1. By what name is the home of an ant colony called?

2. What is the derivation of the word?

3. What is the derivation of the name of the order to which ants and bees belong?

4. How many wings have the members of this order?

5. What is the entomological significance of the expression "complete metamorphosis"?

6. In the development of the Hymenoptera is the metamorphosis complete?

7. What is a favorite food of the ants?

8. How do ants protect the source of this food?

9. How may termites be distinguished from ants?

10. Where are termites that live in the United States usually found?

CURRENT EVENTS.—IV.

1. When was the dual monarchy of Austria-Hungary formed?

2. By what body is the legislative power of both monarchies exercised?

3. Of what does this body consist and where does it assemble?

4. What is their method of passing upon measures?

5. Who is the ruler of Austria-Hungary and when was he proclaimed emperor?

6. What threefold title has the ruler?

7. Who is the heir presumptive to the throne?

8. In conducting the affairs of the whole empire by whom is the emperor aided?

9. Which of these assistants is the prime minister?

10. To whom are the heads of the executive departments for common affairs responsible?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR DECEMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—III.

1. Poland. 2. During the reign of the Great Elector, Frederick William (1640-88). 3. Brandenburg. 4. In 1611. 5. Frederick I., son of the Great Elector. 6. "His eccentricities were such as had never been seen out of a mad-house." 7. Frederick William I.; to form a corps of giant soldiers, to secure which he sent envoys to different parts of the world. 8. That of Frederick II. 9. The Seven Years' War. 10. It was one of the five great powers.

GERMAN LITERATURE.—III.

1. Tacitus. 2. About 98 or 99 A.D. 3. "Ein Feste Burg ist unser Gott." 4. He believed that God had committed the instruction of the young not only to the parents, but also to the state and the church. 5. The Reformation was entirely hostile to secular literature. 6. Melanchthon. 7. Hans Sachs. 8. About six thousand. 9. At Augsburg in 1505; but regularly numbered journals began to appear in 1566. 10. They were borrowed from the French.

NATURE STUDIES.—III.

1. About thirteen thousand. 2. Aves. 3. Mammals and reptiles; reptiles. 4. Reptilian. 5. The remains of fossil birds, some of which have teeth and show prominent reptilian characters. 6. It is more general. 7. By their powers of flight and their adaptability to different conditions of life. 8. Scientific, economic, and esthetic. 9. In the valuable service they render as devourers of insects and rodents, scavengers, and destroyers of the seeds of harmful plants. 10. Because they feed on the small rodents which are destructive to plants.

CURRENT EVENTS.—III.

1. John Jay, of New York. 2. One chief justice and eight associate justices. 3. They are appointed by the president to hold office for life. 4. Once a year, from October until May. 5. John Ericsson. 6. All the newest ships in all the navies became old-fashioned and all great nations had to build new navies after the plan of the *Monitor*. 7. In the battle between the *Monitor* and *Merrimac*. 8. In 1823. 9. A treaty with Russia in which she abandoned all claim to the Pacific coast south of 54° 40′, the southern boundary of Alaska. 10. *The New Hampshire Gazette*.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882-1901.

NEWS FROM THE FIELD.

THE month just passed has crystallized much of the Chautauqua activity of the past few weeks into definite results and circle after circle has come knocking at the doors of Chautauqua and gladly taken up the pleasant responsibilities of membership. One of the most notable reports of the month has been that of the Elm Park Circle of Scranton, Pa., which has contributed some seventy-five members to the Class of 1901. The leader of the circle, the Rev. C. M. Giffin, is a good illustration of the saying of a famous writer, "Obstacles are for those that cannot fly." This busy pastor certainly possesses the ability to inspire such an amount of Chautauqua enthusiasm as enables his circle to rise above every difficulty that besets the less fortunate.

THE new year-book of the Brooklyn Chautauqua Union marks a forward step in the history of this model organization. The union was organized in 1886 and its influence upon the literary life of Brooklyn is not to be estimated. Twenty-four circles are represented in the year-book and in addition to these the Long Island Society of the Hall in the Grove and the circles of the Jersey City Union have also found a place. The committee are to be congratulated upon the admirable character of the little pamphlet, which will be of great service not only to the Brooklyn membership but also to other Chautauquans who are interested in developing local unions. We do not know whether the union is able to supply copies of this book to those who may like to have it, but a note addressed to the president, Mr. John A. Straley, 282 Halsey St., Brooklyn, N. Y., would bring the desired information.

THE Jersey City Union, under the leadership of Mr. George Lincks, write that the better times are already being felt and that they expect to double their membership this year.

AMONG the Southern States the Twentieth Century Class is gaining an unusual number of adherents, South Carolina, Georgia, and Arkansas reporting unusually large elements.

A NOTABLE Chautauqua gathering was held in Philadelphia on the evening of November 20, when Bishop Vincent addressed the Chautauquans and their friends. The plan was carried out under the special leadership of the Jewish Chautauqua Organization, the chairman of which is Dr. Henry Berkowitz.

THE Chancellor's special note of greeting sent out to circles and members in the early fall has brought many very pleasant responses. A few words of cheer designed to keep the hard-pressed readers from falling by the way elicited the following bright reply from the president of a Chicago circle: "The advice not to make hard work of it came too late, for we have worked so very hard and conscientiously in the past three years that we can hardly do otherwise this year. We were strong enough not to lower the sails in our first year and now we glide on more easily. It was difficult at first, but the training thus received is and has been beneficial in more ways than one. Our circle met once a week, and once each month in the three years we had a review. I thought perhaps you would like to know what good work a small circle without any other name than 'circle' is quietly doing in Chicago. The margins of all our books would give you great pleasure. I consider the endowment plan a good one. I will try to do what I can and trust that all the students of Chautauqua will do likewise."

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner; S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.

Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

EVERY class at graduation finds itself recruited from the ranks of those who failed to achieve the diploma in four years. Such Chautauquans are always welcomed with peculiar zeal and interest, for they represent what the poet calls

The victory of endurance born.

THE Class of 1898 is to be favored in this respect, as other classes have been; for instance, an Alabama member writes that "it is only six years" from the time she should have graduated, yet she expects now to carry off the honors with her '98 classmates.

A WORD or two from members of 1897 may be of good cheer to the '98's, giving them a little hint of their own point of view a year hence. Here are some of them: "I am proud of my diploma, because it represents four years of the hardest work I ever did. I shall continue THE CHAUTAUQUAN and take up advanced work in agricultural literature, for which this training has greatly aided me."

FROM Chicago: "At last I am ready for congratulations, not that I have done well but that I have persevered. Disappointed in my expectations of a college education by the death of my father, I have missed much that I might have accomplished because of the lack of patient persistence in one line of study. So the C. L. S. C. has not only been a pleasure to me, but it has helped me to conquer self."

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"Fidelity, Fraternity."

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—John A. Travis, Washington, D. C.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlysle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, England; Miss Alice Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tientsin, China.

Secretary—Miss Isabelle T. Smart, Brielle, N. J.

Treasurer—John C. Whiteford, Chautauqua, N. Y.

Trustee—Miss M. A. Bortle, Mansfield, O.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

Yet, I argue not
Against Heaven's hand or will, nor bate a jot
Of heart or hope; but still bear up
And steer right onward.

—*Milton.*

THE member of '99 who reads these words has, however, a distinct advantage over the spirit who once uttered them, since no member of the class need feel that "Heaven's hand or will" is against him, and as he trims his little craft for the voyage of the new year he may with good cheer "bear up and steer right onward."

CASUAL words of greeting dropped by the Patriots in their onward march indicate the general spirit of the whole army, which is courageous in the extreme. Here is one member who writes: "I have charge of an insane department at a sanitarium and when I am wearied devising ways and means of dispersing delusions it is an intellectual treat as well as restful to the brain to turn to the Chautauqua studies." Brave Chautauquan! We give her the salute of the Patriots.

SOME of the class who have been at Chautauqua year after year and felt the inspiration of the class reunions and the joy in the class building are undertaking the somewhat laborious task of corresponding with fellow classmates about securing some additional funds for the equipment of the class building. We are sure all such letters will receive a kindly response from the members of the class even should they be unable to contribute ever so little toward the desired object. It would be a pleasure to the class to receive replies from these letters, thus giving us a little closer acquaintance with each other and with the wide-spread work which is being accomplished by the class.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor."

"Licht, Liebe, Leben."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—Rev. John A. McKamy, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, Canisteo, N. Y.; J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer.—Miss Mabel Campbell, 53 Younglove Ave., Cohoes, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

And step by step since time began
I see the steady gain of man
. . . . . .
For still the new transcends the old
In signs and tokens manifold.

THIS little quotation from Whittier's "Chapel of the Hermits" has a flavor of the new year about it that will inspire every member of 1900 whether a solitary reader or a member of an active circle, for after all every one of us is more or less of a hermit, since however much we move among the outward rush of men and events, the daily battle against discouragement and a weak will and low ideals has to be fought out in the private cell of our own being. Whittier was a man who knew life well and for that reason is a safe guide for us in our hermit struggle.

THE solitary readers are always held in especial concern by their classmates and occasional greetings from them are much appreciated. Here is a word from Oklahoma Territory: "We are only two but we are struggling along trying to enjoy life and make it worth living. We are on the borders of civilization, it might be called, in the Territory. The Indian is our neighbor. We belong to the Class of 1900 and want the prayers and best wishes of our more fortunate co-workers, who have more desirable surroundings."

THE president sends greeting to his classmates and reports the Nineteenth Century Circle of Chicago as doing good work and trying, with the help of the other city circles, to keep the Chautauqua spirit strong in this great center of activities of so many sorts.

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS."

"Light, Love, Life."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—William H. Mosely, New Haven, Conn. Rev. George S. Duncan, D. C.; John Sinclair, New York; Mrs Samuel George, W. Va.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Harriet Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—COREOPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

AT the opening of the new year our classmates whose interest is being turned to the influence of the old Roman world will read with interest and we trust with good cheer these words from one of the most famous of the old philosophers:

Forward as occasion offers, never look round to see whether any shall note it. Be satisfied with success in even the smallest matters and think that even such a result is no trifle.

—*Marcus Aurelius.*

THE Twentieth Century Class continues to welcome its membership from every land and clime. Not only the officers but every member extends a greeting to every other member at the opening of the new year. It is a sort of second New Year to us, as we made our first fair start on the first of October and like every new year after that first eventful one in our lives we welcome the opportunity to turn over a fresh leaf once more and try again. So the best of good cheer to the Twentieth Century Class, and as we go back to the medieval period to get our perspective of life properly adjusted let us also go with the courage of twentieth century men and women who have the lives and deeds of the medieval saints and heroes behind them.

WE cannot call by name the vast array of circles who have during the past two weeks joined hands with us in our march toward the goal, but we would send special greetings to our comrades who are holding up the standard so bravely in Scranton, Pa., and to the circle of twenty-five members from Summerville, S. C., and to the long list of Chautauqua readers from Columbus, Ga.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"*We Study the Word and the Works of God.*" "*Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst.*"
"*Never be Discouraged.*"

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1897–98.

WILLIAM I. DAY—October 25.
BISMARCK DAY—November 16.
MOLTKE DAY—December 3.
PLINY DAY—January 23.
JUSTINIAN DAY—February 10.
FREDERICK II. DAY—March 20.
MOHAMMED DAY—April 3.
NICCOLO PISANO DAY—May 28.

NEW CIRCLES.

MAINE.—A C. L. S. C. graduate of '90 was the moving spirit in the organization of a Current History circle in East Corinth, the class numbering between fifteen and twenty members.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The president of Dorchester Circle, who is a member of Lake View Assembly Class of '86, writes of the Chautauqua movement in that section: "After a lapse of several years the Chautauqua interest in Dorchester has again been revived and a new circle, the Dorchester, has been formed, meeting at residences alternate Mondays. Twenty-six were present at the third meeting. In addition to the current reading the circle program includes current events and sketches of local history and historical places, and its work starts a new era in a section almost entirely given over to thoughtless pleasures. This circle is the direct result of a movement begun at Lake View Assembly upon recommendation of the Class of '86, that effort be directed to establishing circle work around eastern Massachusetts. The committee appointed conferred with Prof. William D. Bridge, and finally left the work in his hands."——Another circle has been formed at Washington Village, between South Boston and Dorchester.——Membership Books are forwarded to three ladies at Dudley and one at Rockdale, who will give immediate attention to the work.

RHODE ISLAND.—Five members of a family in Providence became members of the new class in November.——A class each member of which possesses great capabilities is studying at Auburn.

CONNECTICUT.—The First Baptist Church of New Haven contributes a large number of members for the new class; a stirring report shows them to be all that Chautauquans could desire.

NEW YORK.—The Vesper Service is again instrumental in Chautauqua's behalf. As a result of its use in the Central Presbyterian Church of Brooklyn twenty-five have joined the freshman class under the name of the Carson Circle, called after the pastor of that church.——The already large number of Chautauquans in New York City is increased by

four members; the name of the circle is not given. ——A desire for mental improvement has induced a half-dozen people of Troupsburg to join the Chautauqua ranks.——The C. L. S. C. is being favorably talked about in Olcott, with promise of a circle being formed.——Names are received from East Avon and Bronxville.

NEW JERSEY.—A competent organizer has been at work among the people of Trenton and as a result fifteen readers will cast their lot with the growing Class of 1901.——The following report is from Asbury Park: "After continued effort a Chautauqua circle consisting of fifteen members has been formed in this place, under the name of the Parathalassians. The meetings are well attended and great interest is shown. 'The Beckel Colony in Germany' and 'Tariff' have been the subjects under discussion at our first meetings. Our members are all conscientious workers. We are not seeking large numbers, though all are welcome, but true intellectual advancement."

PENNSYLVANIA.—Pittsburg contributes two valuable circles to 1901, one at Homewood, East End, is named the Light-bearer C. L. S. C. and meets every alternate Saturday evening, when at least two papers are read and the regular lesson studied. The other circle, the Oakland, meets Monday evenings and the members are living up to their motto, "Look up, lift up." Thus far they have found their time profitably spent.——Elm Park Circle of Scranton, as is mentioned in *The Classes*, has made a remarkable beginning, with fifty-one members. ——The community of Gladwyne in which the twenty-eight members of Merion Square Circle are situated will surely feel the influence of this determined band of Chautauqua workers.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—The German-Romans have found a strong foothold in Washington.

WEST VIRGINIA.—Eleven freshmen at Parkersburg are sure of success. The pastor of the First M. E. Church is the organizer.——A start has been made toward organization in Williamstown.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—The Summerville Circle, rich in numbers and in good literary material, will surely have a profitable four years' course of study.—— Newberry comes to the front with a wide-awake circle of beginners.

FLORIDA.—Chautauqua interests are well cared for in Jacksonville and Eustis, where promising circles are faithfully at work.

KENTUCKY.—A true Chautauqua spirit is manifested in a little band of students at Taylorsville.

TENNESSEE.—The circle at White Haven was formed a year ago, and is still interested in continuing the course.

ARKANSAS.—Eight ladies of Osceola read the course last year, but report now for the first time. They have well earned their right to be sophomores.

TEXAS.—A letter asking information concerning work in French history is received from Georgetown.

OHIO.—The Klondikes at Cygnet are ten searchers for knowledge, and will doubtless find many valuable nuggets during their four years' as Chautauqua readers.——Another band of ten from Cleveland have joined their fortunes with the freshman class.

ILLINOIS.—An excellent plan of study has been arranged by the beginners in West Chicago; they have a leader for each book until it is finished; fifteen minutes of each meeting are given to magazine articles and one half-hour is taken up with current events. Such systematic work will bring the work to completion at the proper time.

MICHIGAN.—The appreciation of Chautauqua is often shown by the interest taken by the members after graduation. A member of '97 has used her influence for Chautauqua in Mason and has enlisted a loyal band of workers there.

WISCONSIN.—Twenty-one names have been sent by the secretary of Lakeside Branch C. L. S. C., fourteen from Marinette, six from Menominee, and one from Milwaukee.

MINNESOTA.—Graduates have formed a circle at Windom and are studying the Current History and Garnet Seal Courses.——Two circles are organized in Glencoe.

IOWA.—The Chautauqua secretary of this state, Mrs. Shipley, has previously shown her ability as an organizer and now more than ever in her work at Des Moines. An evening class, named the Clinton Douglas Circle for the pastor of the Pilgrim Congregational Church, has been initiated in the Chautauqua work. An afternoon class is also much pleased with the prospects of a systematic course of study and is known as the Harriet Shipley Circle.—— The secretary of the Clarinda Assembly, a busy pastor, has organized a class of twenty-six energetic students at Clarinda.

MISSOURI.—Abundant Chautauqua material is found in the new circle at Carthage.——A flourishing band of 1901's report from Bolivar.

KANSAS.—The Suburban Circle of Salina has joined the legions of Chautauqua workers.——Nine members at Portland are also launched in the work.

NEBRASKA.—Thorough work is the motto of the circle recently organized at Palmyra.——The secretary of Furnas County has reorganized the circle at Beaver City. He says: "I am seventy years old and this is the eighth year of Chautauqua reading for me. I cannot see any place to stop."

NORTH DAKOTA.—Eight excellent workers are reported from Hope.

OLD CIRCLES.

MAINE.—A '97 graduate of Livermore Falls writes concerning the course of study: "It is a

great source of pleasure to me and I feel that I have been greatly benefited by it. This year has completed the four years' course and with it is added a greater desire to continue the work." She is now a member of the Rockomeka Circle.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The juniors of Holland Circle of Springfield are, as ever, alive to the interests of Chautauqua, and have added one new member to their list.——The circle at Holyoke is entering upon its third year of study.——The Waltham branch of Keep Pace Circle have found room in their midst for several 1901's.

CONNECTICUT.—The Luckey Circle, New Haven, now makes a new start with three '01's and several old members.——The circle at North Guilford belongs to the sophomore class but has admitted three freshmen to the membership.

NEW YORK.—Temple Circle, New York, expects a membership of fifty to carry on the work; all are intellectual and are working for self-improvement. They form a strong circle.——The graduating exercises of the Epworth Circle, Brooklyn, held at the home of Mrs. Helen O'Donnell, consisted of an exceptionally fine program followed by a delightful reception, when a novel entertainment was furnished which may interest the *Local Circle* readers. Dainty little cards, all numbered, were distributed, on one side of which was printed the following:

No. ——

When announcement is given, proceed at once to secure the autographs of ladies holding cards Nos. —— ——.

As soon as this has been done, find your partner who holds the card having a similar number to this and with your partner report to the president. Prizes will be awarded to the partners who first succeed in accomplishing this work.

On the opposite page were blank places for the autographs and their numbers. On the cards given to the ladies the word "gentlemen" was substituted for the word "ladies." This progressive circle also sends a sample of their Chautauqua book-mark, which is a long strip of paper, doubled over at both ends, on which is printed the program for the year. Other circles of Brooklyn are alive to Chautauqua interests; the Pathfinders, the Janes, and the Laurel Circles are well up in their work. The banquet of the Long Island Society of the Hall in the Grove is announced to take place at St. George's Hotel in December.——The Pioneers of Westfield have been organized since 1878, and are still keeping a sharp lookout for Chautauqua. On Shakespeare Day a reunion of the alumni and all other Chautauquans was held; it has long been a custom with this circle to thus celebrate this day.—The local papers give ample notice of the circles at Mt. Vernon, and the meetings as here described are interesting and very profitable. Mt. Vernon Circle meets on alternate Mondays and invites all interested to attend. Eidelweiss Circle has been favored by having an artist in their midst who has kept them supplied with maps of the countries studied. The last one presented was in a dissected form and it required some little time to fit the different parts to their places, but when completed it made an excellent map of the German Empire. A member of this circle gives some hints for sustaining the interest of a circle. He says: "This may be done by keeping the meetings general, avoiding long essays, using games bearing on the subjects, discussions, historical personifications, telling what articles in THE CHAUTAUQUAN pleased most, and why."

NEW JERSEY.—There is a wide-awake class of thirty-one members at Vineland, about half of the number being freshmen. This circle is studying one book at a time and has already finished "Imperial Germany."——A Chautauqua circle of Jersey City has arranged a syllabus for the year's work up to February, which was printed in a local paper. At each meeting the president gives a half-hour lecture.

PENNSYLVANIA.—"Once a Chautauquan, always a Chautauquan," seems to be the motto of the graduates of Sellersville Circle. They are all still reading the course and are a great inspiration to the beginners. The *Sellersville Herald* recently gave a history of the circle since its beginning, with only five members, up to the present, when it numbers more than five times that number. A newly established custom in this circle is to have a Chautauqua night once every month. This is in addition to the weekly meetings, and has thus far proved successful. The Irving Circle of Sellersville is certainly one of which any community might well be proud. ——The Mountville C. L. S. C. is in its fourth year of Chautauqua study and reports excellent work.—— Petroleum Circle of Bradford has been built up again this year after having nearly died out last year; they now number twenty-five.——"Alleghanian C. L. S. C. of Coudersport, so named from our river and mountains, is a band of interested workers, all ladies except three. We use the demerit system, and with our excellent president hope to have a profitable year."——The sophomore class has a diligent corps of workers in Orwigsburg.

MARYLAND.—The Laniers of Baltimore begin their second year with eleven active members.

GEORGIA.—An encouraging letter from Atlanta informs us that three circles are to be found in that city, but the one reported is the Browning, which has now seven members, the original seven who organized four years ago and have kept their place among the foremost in the ranks. They are seniors and proud of the class to which they belong.

KENTUCKY.—A pleasant circle of eighteen members at Mt. Sterling have found Chautauqua literature what they wished to read, and are doing excellent work in the studies.

ALABAMA.—The town of Troy is greatly benefited by the presence of a thriving circle in its midst.

OHIO.—A slight falling off in the members of last year in the Holmes Circle of Dayton is atoned for in the new members who have taken the place of those who dropped out, and all is now moving smoothly.——The Mt. Vernons start with ten readers and expect to raise the number to fifteen. ——"The C. L. S. C. of Mechanicsburg has six active members this year; we meet every Friday afternoon and carry out the plan of work as laid out in THE CHAUTAUQUAN. We find it a real and unadulterated pleasure to pursue the course, as it brings us in closer touch with the world and its possessions."——The class of sophomores at Lima have added to their number seven freshmen who will make excellent Chautauquans.——The Athenians of Fostoria have added a large number of new names to their circle.

INDIANA.—The progressive Frankfort Circle has secured several new members for the course.—— Good work and good prospects is the encouraging report of the Chautauquans at Mount Ayr.——The majority of the class members at South Wabash are juniors, but five new members add fresh interest to the already zealous band.——From Decatur comes the following: "This is our second year's work and the members are very much interested in the C. L. S. C. course. We have found the new books even more interesting than those of the previous year."——Noble efforts are made by the members at Warsaw and Elkhart.

ILLINOIS.—Students at Forreston are proceeding with unabated ardor.——The class of worthy seniors at Galesburg is one of which Chautauqua is justly proud.——Chautauquans at Griggsville, Delavan, and West Chicago are fully equipped for the year's work.——The Trip to England Course is enjoyed by the Clover Club at Danville.

MICHIGAN.—Eight energetic members compose the circle at Milan.——A progressive spirit prevails among the Chautauquans at Benton Harbor.

WISCONSIN.—The Chautauqua course is fully appreciated by Eugene Field Circle at Racine.—— Westfield Circle makes rapid headway in the studies.

MINNESOTA.——Secretaries of Athene, Duluth, and Albert Lea Circles report favorably for Chautauqua.

IOWA.—The work of the year just begun is carried on with vigor by the Columbias at Cedar Falls.—— The charter members of the Irresistibles, Clarion, have reorganized under the national name, Patriots. ——The seal courses are very popular among the Hyperions at Rockford.——College Hill Circle, Des Moines, is alive to Chautauqua interests.——"The influence of our circle (Prairie City) is recognized in the community as the most practical organization for self-culture."

GRADUATE CLASSES.

A NEW seal course has recently been added to the C. L. S. C. series for the special benefit of parents and teachers interested in the study of domestic science. The course has been prepared under the general direction of the Cooking School Teachers' League of America and all interested can secure circulars by addressing the Buffalo office.

A MATTER of interest to all members of the S. H. G. is the organization of a Jefferson County Alumni Association under the leadership of Mrs. G. E. W. Young, district secretary at Adams, N. Y. The graduates of the circle at Belleville met on the 22d of October and formed an organization to be known under the above title. All who hold C. L. S. C. diplomas are eligible to membership. The organization was formed with a membership of fifteen, representing classes from '89 to '96. They adopted by-laws which were signed by the fifteen charter members. Fifteen additional members have also reported themselves and the new organization proposes to extend itself to Ogdensburg and other important centers in the county.

SPECIAL mention is again made of the course for the members of the Guild of the Seven Seals, which includes THE CHAUTAUQUAN, "Imperial Germany," "The Social Spirit in America," and Drummond's "The Ascent of Man." A fee of 50 cents forwarded to the office at Buffalo, N. Y., will provide any members of the Guild with the memoranda necessary to win the seal.

SUMMER ASSEMBLY.

THE Long Pine Assembly, Nebraska, held, during the summer, a remarkably successful session. Large crowds attended the meetings during the season, and after all expenses were paid a balance for next year's work remained in the treasury.

Prof. A. K. Goudy was alone responsible for the preparation and supervision of the program and so well did he perform his labors that the patrons of the Assembly were furnished with rare opportunities to hear interesting lectures and a high grade of music.

Talented lecturers spoke from the Assembly platform. Among those who helped to entertain the people were Judge Morris, Rev. Luther P. Ludden, Prof. T. L. Lyon and Prof. Fred Taylor, of the University of Nebraska, and the Hon. W. A. Poynter. The music was furnished by the Scandinavian Quartette and by Miss Silence Dale, a talented young violinist of Lincoln.

The Recognition Day service was in charge of Mrs. M. S. Walker, who conducted the exercises in an attractive manner. At the close of the session a new circle was organized with much promise of good work during the coming year.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Books for Young People.

A problem which ministers, Sunday-school teachers, and parents find difficult to solve is that of presenting valuable truths to children in an attractive and effective manner. That the problem is not unsolvable is proved by a volume of "Sermon Stories for Boys and Girls"* by Rev. Louis Albert Banks, D.D. The collection contains a large number of interesting stories about people, animals, and familiar objects, each bearing a precious seed of truth.

A lively account of the capture and the surrender of Tawny, a wild horse of the Texas prairie, opens Kirk Munroe's story entitled "With Crockett and Bowie."† Rex Harden is the young man who accomplished the wonderful feat and won the affection of the noble steed. Soon after this incident Rex is called to active service in the Texan struggle for independence which furnishes the historical setting for this tale. There he finds his horse invaluable to him, and according to the story these two did valiant service for the Lone Star State, but not without many dangerous and exciting encounters.

One of the most successful writers of stories for young people is George A. Henty. The dignity of his literary style and the subjects he chooses command the admiration of older readers and at the same time they attract the young and help to develop a taste for good literature. The three of his books now ready for the holiday trade have for their background historical incidents of great importance. "A March on London"‡ deals with the peasant revolt in England under the leadership of Wat Tyler. In the guise of a story with an admirable hero the author gives his youthful readers a tolerably clear idea of English affairs in the latter part of the fourteenth century. "With Frederick the Great"‖ is a story of the war between Prussia and Russia, Austria, and France, known as the Seven Years' War, in which are lucid descriptions of important battles. The subject of the third story§ is Sir John Moore's expedition to the Spanish Peninsula, which, the preface states, the author has found necessary to treat in two volumes, the second being promised for next year. Illustrations form a part of the contents of each of the volumes and to two of them maps have been added.

There are three heroes of Mr. William Henry Shelton's unique story of the Civil War.* They are three soldiers who have charge of a signal station on a lofty mountain south of Mason and Dixon's line. False messages from a neighboring station convince them that the Confederacy has won in the struggle and they decide to spend the remainder of their lives on the mountain. How they obtained provisions after the two months' rations were exhausted, how they employed their time, and how they were rescued are told in an easy, bright style. The manner of the telling and the frequent recurrence of novel incidents are sufficient to sustain the reader's interest to the end. The story is amply illustrated by B. West Clinedinst.

One summer three people traveling in England frequently visited places which tradition connected in some way with King Arthur,† and as a natural outcome the stories about him and his knights were told to the youngest member of the party. As related they are simple and entertaining, for which William Henry Frost is responsible. Pictorial representations accompany the recitals.

Prudence, Experience, Submit, Abigail, Nathaniel, and Peletiah are the names given to some of the characters in a story called "The Young Puritans of Old Hadley,"‡ and the language they use and the sentiments they express are highly appropriate to the time the story represents. In a careful and vivid manner the author has portrayed child-life in the early years of our country's history, producing a picture which will make young people thankful for present privileges.

The paragon of schoolmasters is Mr. Pansy in a recent story‖ by John Trowbridge. He is a perfect marvel in his power to discern and to do what is required no matter what the circumstances may be. It is well that he is such an ideal, for one less tactful in the same position would never have succeeded in accomplishing such wonderful results. Mr. Trowbridge brings into the story athletics, electrical science, and just enough intrigue to give it the requisite amount of spiciness.

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* Sermon Stories for Boys and Girls. By Rev. Louis Albert Banks, D.D. With initial illustrations by Freeland A. Carter. 218 pp. $1.00. New York: Funk & Wagnalls Company.

† With Crockett and Bowie. By Kirk Munroe. Illustrated by V. Perard. 347 pp. $1.25.——‡ A March on London. By G. A. Henty. With eight illustrations by W. H. Margetson. 339 pp.——‖ With Frederick the Great. By G. A. Henty. With twelve illustrations by Wal Paget. 374 pp.——§ With Moore at Corunna. By G. A. Henty. With twelve illustrations by Wal Paget. 401 pp. $1.50 each. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

* The Last Three Soldiers. By William Henry Shelton. 324 pp. $1.50. New York: The Century Co.

† Knights of the Round Table. By William Henry Frost. Illustrated by Sidney Richmond Burleigh. 281 pp. $1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ The Young Puritans of Old Hadley. By Mary P. Wells Smith. Illustrated by L. J. Bridgman. 345 pp. $1.25.——‖ The Resolute Mr. Pansy. By John Trowbridge. Illustrated by Victor A. Searles. 206 pp. $1.25. Boston: Roberts Brothers.

The very ingenuousness of the recital which bears the title "In the Choir of Westminster Abbey"* would impel one to read it if the incidents recounted were not of themselves engrossing. The story purports to be an autobiography of Betty Lockwood, who at the age of sixteen went to live in the family of Henry Purcell, and it therefore contains many interesting facts relative to this great English musician and composer of the seventeenth century. Among the illustrations are pictures of Westminster Abbey.

William O. Stoddard has written a story of the American Revolution which he calls "The Red Patriot."† The news of Washington's defeat at the battle of Long Island brought to Irwin Hollow by a messenger from General Washington to Congress is the first event of importance in the story. This messenger being exhausted by his long ride, a young man of the village volunteers to deliver the messages safely to Congress. So well does he perform his duty that he becomes an "express rider for the commander-in-chief." In this service he has many thrilling adventures, of which the author has given animated descriptions.

One of the most interesting forms of presenting a biographical sketch for young people is that employed by Hezekiah Butterworth in a volume entitled "True to His Home."‡ Into fictional form he has woven the incidents of Benjamin Franklin's life, and he has made a delightful story, the hero of which is a personage of whom all Americans are proud. The illustrations in the volume are the work of H. Winthrop Peirce.

Sarah Louise Arnold and Charles B. Gilbert are the authors and compilers of a series of school reading books which they have appropriately called "Stepping Stones to Literature."‖ The first two books of the series are to be used in the primary grades. They are well adapted to this use both in the arrangement and in the contents of the lessons. The pictures also, if the colored plates be excepted, are artistic and educative, several of them being reproductions of the works of famous artists. Substantial covers tastefully ornamented make even the outside of the books attractive.

The educational impulse which demands that children shall study the works of nature is a progression in the right direction. Numerous books are being brought out to supply the demand created by this movement in educational fields. One of these is "The Plant Baby and Its Friends,"* a book for the children of the primary grade. Pretty little verses, pleasing dialogues, and simple descriptions contain facts which little folks can easily learn. Many attractive illustrations are scattered through the book and the covers are very dainty, making a volume whose entire contents from cover to cover the children will enjoy.

"The Black Tor"† will appeal to the adventurous spirit which dwells in every boy. It is a story in which a family feud of many years' duration is terminated and the accomplishment of this happy result necessitates several hazardous expeditions. The events so well described are placed in the time of King James I., and the leading personages display many manly traits. Notwithstanding the length of the story and the lack of naturalness in certain conversations and situations, it is a good one and serves to illustrate certain facts of the times it represents.

A tale founded on the events of the first Burmese war is entitled "On the Irrawaddy."‡ A lad and his uncle who have begun trading operations in Burmah are pressed into war service on the side of the English, and the youth is captured by the natives. How he obtains freedom, his narrow escapes, and the perils which he braves to rescue a friend are recounted in dignified English. Information cyclopedic in character is contained in the tale, the characters of which, in spite of their occasionally somewhat stilted conversations, are not uninteresting.

A book to please the little ones is "The Froggy Fairy Book."‖ The story of the fairies' ball and how it was enjoyed by a little girl are charmingly told and admirably illustrated with full-page pictures. The book is bound in red stamped with appropriate cover designs.

A companion volume to the "Field–De Koven Song Book" published about a year ago is "The Stevenson Song Book."§ It contains twenty songs, which, the prefatorial note states, were selected from Stevenson's "Child's Garden of Verses." The music, composed by English and American composers, is simple and well adapted to

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* In the Choir of Westminster Abbey. By Emma Marshall. With illustrations by T. Hamilton Crawford, R. S. W. 316 pp. $1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† The Red Patriot. By William O. Stoddard. Illustrated by B. West Clinedinst. 275 pp.——‡ True to His Home. A Tale of the Boyhood of Franklin. By Hezekiah Butterworth. Illustrated by H. Winthrop Peirce. 332 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

‖ Stepping Stones to Literature. By Sarah Louise Arnold and Charles B. Gilbert. A First Reader. 128 pp. A Second Reader. 160 pp. New York, Boston, and Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company.

* The Plant Baby and Its Friends. By Kate Louise Brown. 155 pp. New York, Boston, and Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company.

† The Black Tor. By George Manville Fenn. With eight illustrations by W. S. Stacey. 328 pp. $1.50. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Company.

‡ On the Irrawaddy. By G. A. Henty. With eight illustrations. 315 pp. $1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‖ The Froggy Fairy Book. By Anthony J. Drexel Biddle. Illustrated by John R. Skeen. 50 pp. $1.25. Philadelphia: Drexel-Biddle & Bradley Publishing Company.

§ The Stevenson Song Book. With Music by Various Composers. 119 pp. $2.00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

express the spirit of the words. As in the previous publication, decorative borders of graceful foliage and animal forms ornament the pages which contain the poems, the preface, and the title, and a fanciful cover encases the whole.

"Singing Verses for Children"* is the very apt title of a song book the words of which are from the pen of Lydia Avery Coonley. The title-page, containing a landscape scene in color, is a presage of what may be expected on the succeeding pages. The sentiment of every verse is pictorially represented in colored designs, and the pages of music are also brightly ornamented. It is a book with which children may spend many pleasant hours.

A book to interest the children on the day when most play is forbidden is "Sunday Reading for the Young."† Besides the numerous long and short stories, poetry, Bible stories, and bits of useful information, the volume contains nearly two hundred pictures which will furnish entertainment for many idle hours. Two supplements, one of which contains a complicated puzzle, accompany the book.

The "Chatterbox"‡ for 1897 appears in its usually attractive board covers. It is profusely illustrated with pictures which, with a few exceptions, notably "The Sugar Maple," represent fairly well the subjects to which they pertain. Several colored plates give the volume a bright appearance. One of the prominent features of the "Chatterbox" is the variety of its literary contents, into which inaccuracies and ambiguities have crept in spite of the efforts of the editor. It, however, supplies the young with entertaining reading.

Poetry.

"Ballads of Yankee Land"‖ is the title of a collection of delightful poems by William Edward Penney. A large proportion of the collection is made up of poetical narratives recited in an easily readable dialect. This does not lessen but rather adds to the homely pathos and delicate humor which we find running through all the poems. In the other ballads are also vivid pictures of pastoral life from the facile pen of the poetical artist, which glow with a warm light of tender feeling. It is not difficult to find in these poems many quotable couplets.

The verses which Richard Watson Gilder has put into a little volume called "For the Country"* will awaken sad memories of the past and at the same time feed the fires of patriotism. To Washington, Lincoln, Grant, Sheridan, Sherman, and a brave chaplain he has dedicated verses which from threnodes are deftly turned to pæans of praise in irregular but not often labored measure. The longest and one of the best of the poems is "The Great Remembrance."

L. Bruce Moore is the composer of a fanciful poem called "The Death of Falstaff."† There is about it a weirdness and a somewhat labored rhythmic measure which make it little attractive. Nearly fifty other poetical compositions, in which are exhibited varying degrees of spontaneity and felicity of expression, are bound in the same covers, and among them may be found many pleasant verses.

None who read the collection of poems‡ by the Rev. Benjamin Copeland can complain of monotony either in subject or style. The wonderful diversity of nature has given him a large field from which to draw many a helpful lesson, and the ease with which he gives expression to his poetical thought makes his work pleasant reading. Among the sacred sonnets are several gems breathing comfort and relief for the heart burdened with sorrow and care.

Some of the best of the poems in "Echoes of Halcyon Days"‖ are among the "Facetiæ Imitations and Translations." There the reader will find a variety of thoughts the metrical expression of which will remind him of certain well-known verses by celebrated bards. In the "Thulean Themes" there is also a pleasing variation in meter and sentiment, and while some of the sonnets and short poems reflect sadness and regret they are without the quality which would give them any unpleasant gloominess. Four prose idyls full of poetical expressions close this admirable collection of verses.

The time which Elizabeth G. Crane has chosen to represent in the drama "Berquin"§ is May, 1527, and a royal château in Navarre is the theater of action. Francis I. is king of France and to his court belong his sister, Margaret of Navarre, Clement Marot, the court poet, and Louis de Berquin. These noted personages, with Diane de Rambure, a court lady, are the important characters in the drama, in which there is but indifferent machination and slight action. Though the drama conveys an

* Singing Verses for Children. Words by Lydia Avery Coonley. Pictures by Alice Kellogg Tyler. Music by Eleanor Smith, Jessie L. Gaynor, Frederic W. Root, Frank H. Atkinson, Jr. $2.00. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† Sunday Reading for the Young. With contributions by Ismay Thorn, E. M. Green, Mrs. Bulley, H. L Taylor, etc. 412 pp. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.

‡ Chatterbox. Edited by J. Erskine Clark, M. A. 412 pp. Boston: Estes and Lauriat.

‖ Ballads of Yankee Land. By William Edward Penney. 301 pp. $1.50. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

* "For the Country." By Richard Watson Gilder. 69 pp. $1.00. New York: The Century Co.

† The Death of Falstaff and Other Poems. By L. Bruce Moore. 102 pp. Baltimore: Cushing & Company.

‡ Poems. Pastoral and Psalms. By Rev. Benjamin Copeland. 62 pp. 50 cts. New York: Eaton & Mains. Cincinnati: Curts and Jennings.

‖ Echoes of Halcyon Days. By Maximus A. Lesser. 165 pp. Hartford, Conn.: Truman Joseph Spencer.

§ Berquin. A Drama in Five Acts. By Elizabeth G. Crane. 110 pp. $1 00. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

impression of court life in those early days, it is done in phraseology in which the ancient and modern grammatical forms are hopelessly mixed.

So clearly does Bliss Carman produce echoes from the sea in his "Ballads of Lost Haven"* that we wonder if there is a reference to himself in the following lines:

I was born for deep-sea faring;
I was bred to put to sea;
Stories of my father's daring
Filled me at my mother's knee.
. . . . . .
All my boyhood, from far vernal
Bourns of being, came to me
Dream-like, plangent, and eternal
Memories of the plunging sea.

These stanzas are from the first poem, "A Son of the Sea," and they represent the poetical measure the author has most frequently used in putting into words his mind's fancies. Tender and touching are some of the strains to which the bard has given utterance in smoothly flowing rimes, a quality which characterizes the entire collection.

Poems of sentiment, religion, and patriotism, and "Visions of St. Paul of the Cross"† make up a volume of verses by Rev. Dominic Brennen, who sometimes writes under the name of D. O'Kelley Branden. Among the patriotic poems are two which faithfully express the nation's feeling for those who lost their lives to perpetuate the Union, and there are several which show a strong sympathy for Erin. In each department of the volume there are verses that give utterance to deep sentiments of piety and noble ideas of the purpose of life. Simplicity of diction and meter characterize these poems.

Miscellaneous. A volume of distinguishing and surpassing qualities is a holiday edition of "In Memoriam."‡ The poem, one of the greatest elegies ever written, is prefaced with a critical and appreciative essay by the well-known student of Tennysonian literature, Henry Van Dyke. It is the setting in which the poem has been placed that gives to the volume an elegance and richness unexcelled. The illustrative work is from the pen of Harry Fenn, and every page is decorated with one or more excellent drawings which sympathetically reproduce the sentiment of the poem and at the same time produce a harmonious and artistic effect. The text is printed in very clear type on smooth, heavy paper. The outside of the volume is also very attractive, with its covers of green silk simply ornamented in gold.

Under the title "Chimes from a Jester's Bells"* have been collected a number of stories and sketches by one of America's platform humorists. The first half of the volume is a lively account of the development and training of Rollo. The last half is made up of miscellaneous sketches, humorous and pathetic, one of the best of which is "Laurel and Cypress." It is a volume from which fun and amusement may be obtained. Numerous illustrations form a part of the contents of the volume.

A holiday edition of George W. Cable's "Old Creole Days"† is a fine representative of the attainments possible to the book-maker. The ornamentation of the gray covers consists of a floral design peculiarly appropriate to the contents of the volume. The illustrations, consisting of full-page pictures and numerous head and tail-pieces in photogravure, are exquisite products of the artist's pen and reproduce in a marked way the sentiment of the stories. Heavy paper, clear type, and broad margins are also notable features of the make-up of this volume.

Yule-tide in the eighth century is the time in which Henry Van Dyke has placed his story "The First Christmas Tree."‡ The first scene is in the cloister of Pfalzel, where Boniface, the "Apostle of Germany," appears as a visitor and from which he sets out on a missionary pilgrimage to the heathen people of the north. The journey through the forest, the arrival at the Thunder-oak, the pagan rites at Yuletide, and the transition to a Christian celebration are vividly described in a style which is terse and dignified. The volume is handsomely gotten up, with decorative borders, rubricated title-page, full-page illustrations, and elegant binding.

Through each of F. J. Stimson's short romances, collected under the title "Mrs. Knollys and Other Stories,"‖ there runs a pathetic strain which, while it arouses the reader to a thoughtfully sad mood, does not detract from the attractiveness of the recitals. "Mrs. Knollys" and "In a Garret" are the two most interesting of the seven stories in the collection, but each of them possesses characteristics which should commend them to readers of fictional literature.

Of the numerous lesson helps for the Sunday-school teacher one of the most comprehensive is

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* Ballads of Lost Haven. By Bliss Carman. 117 pp. Boston and New York: Lamson, Wolffe and Company.

† Heart-Tones and Other Poems. By D. O'Kelley Branden. 169 pp. $1.25. Buffalo, New York: The Peter Paul Book Company.

‡ In Memoriam. By Alfred Tennyson. With a preface by Henry Van Dyke. Illustrated by Harry Fenn. 263 pp. $3.50. New York: Fords, Howard and Hulbert.

* Chimes from a Jester's Bells. By Robert J. Burdette. With illustrations by Louis Braunhold. Cover design by Robert J. Burdette, Jr. 268 pp. Indianapolis and Kansas City: The Bowen-Merrill Company.

† Old Creole Days. By George W. Cable. With illustrations by Albert Herter. 234 pp. $6.00.——‡ The First Christmas Tree. By Henry Van Dyke. Illustrated by Howard Pyle. 76 pp. $1.50.——‖ Mrs. Knollys and Other Stories. By F. J. Stimson. 207 pp. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

"Illustrative Notes"* prepared by Jesse Lyman Hurlbut and Robert Remington Doherty. Nothing seems to have been left undone to supply the teacher with the chronology of each lesson, suggestive outlines, a list of reference books, explanatory notes, practical suggestions on teaching and illustrative notes. The notes are profusely illustrated with sketches by Mr. J. D. Woodward and the excellent maps are valuable adjuncts to the volume.

Another valuable volume of notes on the Sunday-school lessons for 1898 is "Arnold's Practical Sabbath-School Commentary on the International Lessons."† It is all that its title implies, practical and comprehensive, with numerous notes, illustrations, hints to primary teachers, questions, maps, and a Bible dictionary. Model blackboard exercises and outlines indicating the practical application of the lessons are also among the helpful suggestions and for the convenience of the teacher a class register is made a part of the volume.

Every lover of nature takes especial delight in the bird life existing about him, a delight which may be greatly increased by the power to identify the different varieties. Among the many books whose object is to create a practical interest in the most common birds is "Bird Neighbors."‡ One hundred and fifty of those which frequent the meadows, gardens, and forests are described in a brief, succinct manner, and to make identification as easy as possible the birds are grouped according to color, their size, their habitat, and the seasons when they appear in a certain locality. An additional aid to the student is the large number of plates which, though in some cases highly colored, give an idea of what nature has done to beautify the covering of the birds.

In the interest of church architecture George W. Kramer has written a book entitled "The What, How, and Why of Church Building."‖ It contains much valuable information about the building materials used in erecting churches, model plans, methods of heating, lighting, and ventilation, with advice concerning the choice of site, the selection of an architect, and many other subjects which a building committee must study. The illustrations are pictures of model church buildings in various parts of the United States.

Unique and fancifully ornamented covers encase a collection of stories* by the author of "Quo Vadis." In the first of the stories the writer vividly portrays the futility of the religion of the ancient Romans and Greeks as a soul-satisfying faith. The second tale, "Sielanka," is a tender idyl in which there are delicate pictures of nature. Each of the remaining four stories shows Sienkiewicz's ability to paint realistic pictures.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

THE AMERICAN SUNDAY-SCHOOL UNION, PHILADELPHIA.

Elmslie, Theodora C. The Pilgrim Child. 75 cts.
Hymnal for Primary Classes. Manual for Primary Sunday-schools. Compiled by a Teacher. 15 cts.

ART AND NATURE STUDY PUBLISHING CO., PROVIDENCE, R. I.

Eddy, Sarah J. Songs of Happy Life for Schools, Homes, and Bands of Mercy. 30 cts.

T. Y. CROWELL & CO., NEW YORK AND BOSTON.

Stackpole, Rev. Everett S., D.D. Prophecy; or Speaking for God. 75 cts.
Miller, J. R., D.D. The Story of a Busy Life. Recollections of Mrs. George A. Paull. $1.00.

D C. HEATH & CO., BOSTON.

Kupfer, Grace H. Stories of Long Ago in a New Dress. 35 cts.
Wells, Benj. W., Ph.D. (Harv.). Drei Kleine Lustspiele. 30 cts.
Baumbach, Rudolph. With English Notes and a German Vocabulary by Dr. William Brenhardt. Die Nonna. Eine Blaustrumpfgeschichte. 30 cts.
Moser, Gustav von. Der Bibliothekar. With an Introduction and Notes by Benjamin W. Wells, Ph.D. (Harv.). 30 cts.
Hatfield, James Taft, Assisted by Jessie Everas, B.L. Materials for German Composition. Based on Höher als die Kirche. 12 cts.
Labiche and Martin. With an Introduction and Notes by Benjamin W. Wells, Ph.D. (Harv.). La Poudre aux Yeux. 25 cts.

HUNT & EATON, NEW YORK.

CRANSTON & CURTS, CINCINNATI.

Wilbor, Rev. William C., Ph.D. With an Introduction by Bishop John Heyl Vincent. Beauty for Ashes, or Consolation for the Bereaved. 35 cts.

LOTHROP PUBLISHING COMPANY, BOSTON.

Swett, Sophie. The Ponkaty Branch Road and Other Stories for Young People. $1.00.

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Daly, Dominick, with a preface by Henry M. Stanley, M.P. Adventures of Roger L'Estrange. An Autobiography. $1.75.
Schechter, S., M.A. Studies in Judaism. $1.75.

NOVELLO, EWER & CO., NEW YORK.

Howard, Francis E. A Handbook on the Training of the Child-voice in Singing. 35 cts.
Howard, Francis E. The Knickerbocker Series of School Songs. Book II. 25 cts.

THE PENN PUBLISHING COMPANY, PHILADELPHIA.

Clark, Rev. Alexander, A.M. School-day Dialogues. A Collection of Original Dialogues, Tableaux, etc. Keystone Series. Cloth, 50 cts. Paper, 30 cts.
Clark, William M. Model Dialogues. A Choice Collection of Original Dialogues, Tableaux, etc. Keystone Series. Cloth, 50 cts. Paper, 30 cts.
Garrett, Phineas. Excelsior Dialogues. Cloth, 50 cts. Paper, 30 cts.
Garrett, Phineas. One Hundred Choice Selections, No. 36. A Repository of Readings, Recitations, and Plays.

THE PETER PAUL BOOK COMPANY, BUFFALO, N. Y.

Rutherford, Mildred. Mannie Brown, That School Girl, and Edward Kennedy, That College Boy. $1.00.

For a fuller announcement of books and a more complete description of fall and winter literature see pages 344–352 of the present number of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

* Illustrative Notes. A Guide to the Study of the International Sunday-School Lessons. By Jesse Lyman Hurlbut and Robert Remington Doherty. 399 pp. $1.25. New York: Eaton & Mains. Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings.

† Arnold's Sabbath-School Commentary on the International Lessons, 1898. Mrs. T. B. Arnold, Editor. 235 pp. 50 cts New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

‡ Bird Neighbors. By Neltje Blanchan. With an introduction by John Burroughs and fifty colored plates. 244 pp. New York: Doubleday & McClure Co.

‖ The What, How, and Why of Church Building. By Geo. W. Kramer, F. A. I. A. 234 pp. New York: Geo. W. Kramer.

* Let Us Follow Him and Other Stories. By the author of "Quo Vadis." Translated from the Polish by Vatslaf A. Hlasko and Thos. H. Bullick. 241 pp. New York: R. F. Fenno & Company.

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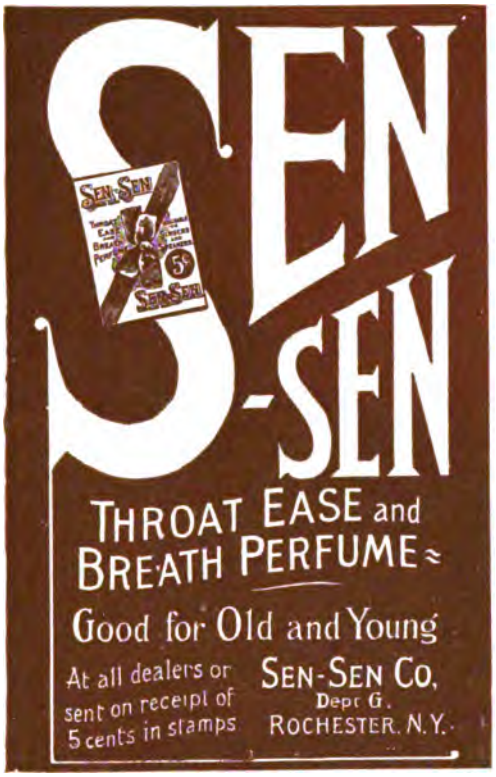

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VOL. XXVI. FEBRUARY, 1898. NO. 5

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DR. THEODORE L. FLOOD, Editor,
MEADVILLE, PA.

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THE DEPARTURE OF LOHENGRIN.

See page 519.

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

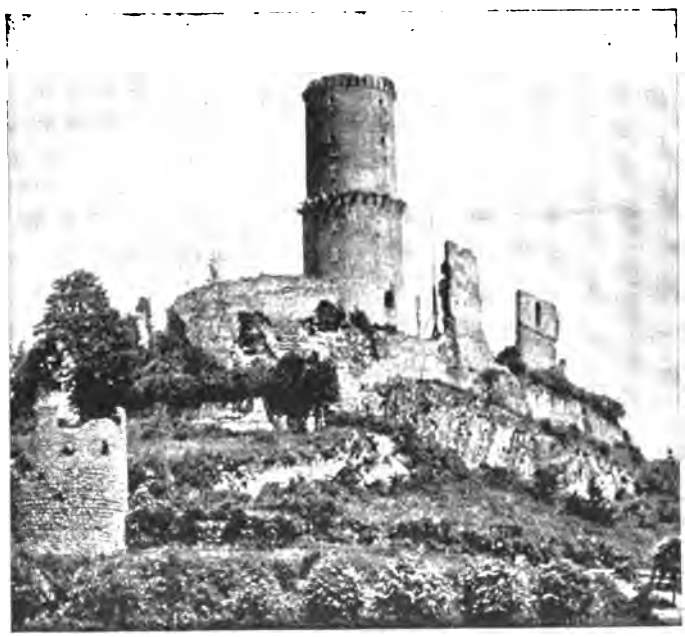
THE RHINE COUNTRY.*

BY H. A. GUERBER.

"THE Rhine is swift like the Rhone," says Victor Hugo, "broad like the Loire, pent up between high banks like the Meuse, winding like the Seine, clear and green like the Somme, historical like the Tiber, majestic like the Danube, weird like the Nile, glittering with gold like an American river, and peopled with fables and phantoms like an Asiatic stream."

To the above poetical statement add that the Rhine is composed of about twenty thousand streams, drains an area of seventy-five thousand square miles, is between seven and eight hundred miles long, falls nearly eight thousand feet, connects the Alps with the sea, and that it is one of the principal waterways of Europe. A system of canals, begun in the first century of our era and continued to date, establishes communication with the Rhone and the Danube, and through them with nearly all the streams and seas of Europe.

If besides this we take into consideration that, as has been said, "it would require no great straining to write a history of this majestic river which would also be a history of the western half of continental Europe," we will gain some idea of the magnitude of the subject comprised in the title of this article.



GODESBERG CASTLE.

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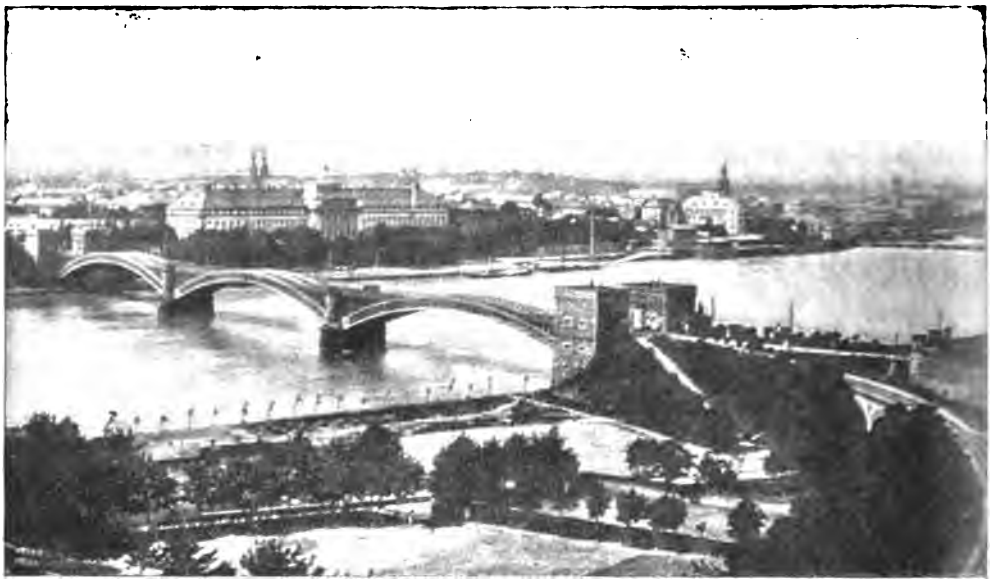
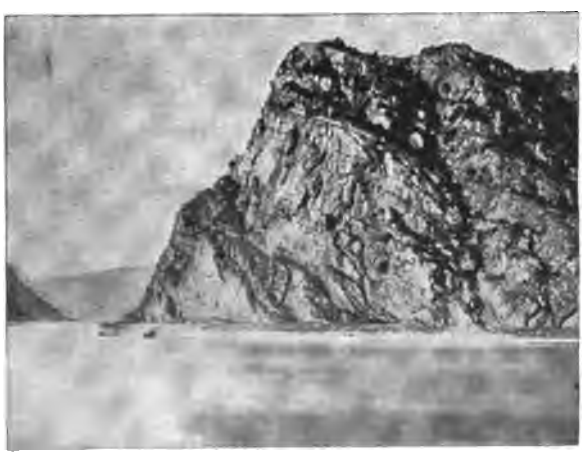


COBLENZ: THE PALACE.

It is impossible in this small space to do more than glance over the interesting country and events which these words call up to memory, so readers are of necessity referred to European history and literature, art books, and collections of legends for adequate information on the varied topics concerning the Rhine.* Rising in Switzerland, the headwaters of this stream flow from about one hundred and fifty glaciers, remains of the ice age. The main feeder, the Vorder Rhine, rises on Mount Saint Gotthard[1] (not very far from the sources of the Rhone), and falling more than twelve hundred feet within the first twelve miles of its course forms numerous picturesque cascades. It winds through wild ravines and gathers the waters of many small streams as it dashes along its way. At Chur[2] the united waters of the three Rhine streams first become navigable. A few miles further on, the river marks the boundary between Switzerland and the Austrian Tyrol,[3] whence it receives one important tributary, the Ill.[4] Then after broadening out to form the Lake of Constance, the Rhine, further swollen by sundry streams, plunges over the Jura barrier in three falls fifty to sixty feet high. These falls of Schaffhausen[5] were formerly more imposing, for the waters have gradually worn away the huge rocks. The deafening roar — still very awe-inspiring — and the rainbow effects of the spray were first mentioned by early Latin writers.



THE LORELEI ROCK.

A few miles below, the foaming river forms lesser cataracts and rapids. Along the Swiss and German frontier, from about

*See the author's "Legends of the Rhine," "Myths of Northern Lands," "Legends of the Middle Ages," and "Stories of the Wagner Opera."

VIEW OF CONSTANCE FROM THE CATHEDRAL.

Kaiserstuhl[6] to Basel, the river makes so many twists and turns that it almost trebles the distance from the Lake of Constance to the last-named city. Along this stretch it receives several tributaries, the most important being the Aar, which, with its accretions, drains the Bernese Oberland[7] and all the larger Swiss lakes except that of Geneva. At Basel the Rhine takes a sudden turn to the north.

Instead of rushing dizzily along over jagged rocks and through narrow ravines, it broadens out and, becoming shallow, divides so as to form numerous islands. Navigation, practicable only from Chur to Schaffhausen, is resumed at Basel, from which point it extends uninterruptedly to the sea. Owing to modern engineering, which has forced its waters into straighter, narrower channels, towns which formerly stood on the Rhine are now connected with it only by canals. One of these cities is Strassburg, the site of a beautiful cathedral, a prosperous university, and the Gutenberg monument.

The Rhine valley between Basel and Mannheim[8] is evidently the bed of an ancient lake, whose shores were once formed by the picturesque ranges of the Vosges[9] and of the Black Forest. Flowing along this valley, the Rhine passes Spire,[10] an

WORMS CATHEDRAL.

ancient Roman city, the home of many German emperors (who are buried in the beautiful cathedral where Saint Bernard preached the second crusade), and the place where the first tournament was held. Then it flows on to Mannheim, one of the most commercial but least interesting towns on the Rhine, where, owing to numerous accretions, it is three times as broad as at Basel. A little further on the mighty river sweeps by the ancient imperial city of Worms, whose walls it once bathed. This city, also the capital and tomb of many of the German emperors, numbered more than seventy thousand inhabitants in the days of Frederic Barbarossa, but now boasts only about ten thousand. It is visited mainly for its cathedral, for its historic associations, and for the sake of the grand Luther monument, erected in the middle of this century.

The Main joins the Rhine at Mainz,[11] a town founded by the Romans before our era and still possessing many remains of their occupation. Its cathedral, begun in 978, was six times a prey to fire. Alternately used as barracks, stables for cavalry, a magazine for powder and provisions, and even as a slaughter-house, it is nevertheless one of the finest and most interesting specimens of medieval architecture. Flowing westward through the Taunus[12] range, the Rhine changes again to a northern course at Bingen, now famous for its potash, but once dreaded on account of a whirlpool, whose dangers have been almost nullified by modern blasting and engineering. Vessels of all sizes now sail past it unharmed, but for many years no boatman braved its perils until he had visited the shrine of some saint and made a solemn vow.

ANDERNACH: THE WATCH TOWER.

Beyond Mainz the river enters the most picturesque part of its course in Germany, and winds its way between volcanic mountains. They hem it in so closely that there is barely room in the narrow valley for the deep stream, a narrow causeway, and the railroads on either side which have effected such a change in Rhine commerce. Geologically this is probably the oldest portion of the river's course, for among these mountains are found curious fossils and more recent volcanic formations, such as extensive beds of pumice-stone, which are duly exploited. All along the ninety miles which separate Mainz from Bonn picturesque towns and villages rise tier on tier on either side

COLOGNE CATHEDRAL.

the valley. The banks are so steep that the whole slope is often terraced, and every inch of ground not occupied by some old building is devoted to the culture of the grapes from which the Rhine wines are made. Each mountain peak, or spur, as well as the multitudinous lateral valleys, fairly bristle with fortresses and ruined castles, famous in history and literature, which add a romantic interest to the beautiful scenery. At Coblenz, the old Roman camp, and the junction of the Rhine and the Moselle, three bridges span the former stream. The Ehrenbreitstein,[13] Germany's impregnable fortress, rises threateningly directly opposite this city, which is deemed one of the fairest of the region.

Closing in again a little further beyond, at Andernach,[14] the Rhine resumes its ravine-like course, passes the towering Lorelei[15] rock, where the river siren was supposed to sit, combing her golden hair and singing a marvelous song to lure the mariners on to destruction. Here the river seems to have no issue, but a sudden turn shows a new and equally picturesque stretch, which extends to Bonn. This city, also a Roman camp, is the birthplace of Beethoven, and the site of a famous university where, among other noted men, Niebuhr[16] and Schlegel taught. Geologists tell us that the Rhine joined the primeval ocean at Bonn, where the valley becomes wide and the country rolling.

After passing Cologne, with its famous cathedral and quaint churches, and Düsseldorf, where remains of ancient German art form the chief attraction to tourists, the Rhine landscape grows flat and uninteresting and the current sluggish. In Holland the country lies below the level of the river, which here flows between huge embankments.

After dividing four times, and sending its waters into the Meuse by the Waal and Leck and into the Zuydersee by the Yssel,[17] the Rhine passes the historical towns of Utrecht and Leyden, and from a broad, majestic river dwindles down into such an insignificant stream that it is pumped into the sea.

Passing through different countries, the

SAINT GOTTHARD: CASCADE DE WYLER.

SONNECK CASTLE.

Rhine seems to partake of the character of the inhabitants. In Switzerland it is strong, free, and picturesque, in Germany alternately useful and romantic, and in Holland slow, persistent, and strictly utilitarian. The illustrations accompanying this article give but a faint idea of a scenery so varied and charming that it yearly attracts from one to two million tourists. They principally visit the stretch between Cologne and Mainz in Germany, and the headwaters in Switzerland. Besides natural charms, the Rhine's historical associations greatly enhance its attractions. For convenience' sake this history is divided into four periods. The first includes the antediluvian, perhaps pre-Adamite, epoch, the time of fossils and of volcanic activity in the region between Mainz and Bonn. During the second period the Rhine valley was inhabited by Celts, who, fleeing before the Teutons, vanished from Germany about four centuries before Christ. The newcomers practiced the Scandinavian religion, which left traces in literature and in our nomenclature of the days of the week. In-

SCHAFFHAUSEN: FALLS OF THE RHINE.

censed by Teutonic incursions, the Romans finally sent Cæsar northward to drive them back. He established camps all along the Rhine, which was a boundary of the Roman Empire for two hundred years. Connected by well-built roads, these camps ultimately became famous cities. The Romans brought thither their own culture and religion, and left frequent traces of their occupation. During the Christian persecutions a whole legion suffered martyrdom at Cologne, where their bones still deck St. Gereon's Church.

After beholding a cross in the skies near Mainz, Constantine transferred his capital to Byzantium, and a little later the barbarians began crossing the Rhine to seek homes elsewhere. The early Frankish kings, the Merovingians, were overrun by the Huns, whose cruelty is recorded in Germany's greatest epic, the Nibelungenlied,[18] and in many legends. The Huns were followed by the Alemanni, whom Clovis defeated at Tolbiac, after making his famous vow.[19] During the rule of his successors, the Rhine country relapsed into heathenism, whence it was rescued by Irish missionaries.

The third period, the golden age of France and Germany, begins with Charlemagne, who conquered the Teutons, destroyed the Irminsul, and lived in turn at Worms, Ingelheim, and Aix-la-Chapelle (Aachen), where he was buried. A doughty warrior, the prince of good fellows, and an enlightened legislator, Charlemagne is the hero of countless legends.

Charlemagne's work was undone by his successors, for his son destroyed his collection of heathen poems and his grandsons divided his realm into Germany, France, and Italy. As he had predicted, the Normans soon came up the Rhine, and they and the returning Huns left ruin and lamentation in their wake. The nobles took advantage of the incapacity of subsequent rulers to extend their power, and Hatto,[20] of Rat Tower fame, the hero of Southey's poem, tyrannized over all the people. Emboldened by impunity, the nobles finally decreed that the German crown should be elective, and the second monarch of their choice is said to have witnessed the duel between Lohengrin[21] and Telramund at Cleves. Utilizing in war preparations a nine years' truce purchased from the Huns, this king defeated them so sorely that they ceased to devastate the Rhine country, which again became a center of culture.

When Peter the Hermit preached the first crusade the turbulent nobles gladly assumed the cross. It is estimated that during the following two hundred years about six millions of Germany's best fighting men went eastward.

Germany's favorite hero is Frederic Barbarossa, who, after warring against unruly vassals, transferred the relics of the Three Kings[22] from Milan to Cologne, where they became the goal of pious pilgrimages. Although Frederic perished in Syria, the people refused to believe he was dead, and tradition claims that he is sleeping in his palace vaults, or in the Kyffhäuser Mountain, to arise when Germany needs him.

Constant feuds between robber-knights made traveling so unsafe, except during the Truce of God,[23] that the towns, having meanwhile attained importance, were forced to maintain private armies until the Hanseatic League was formed. All the knights were not pilferers, however, for along the Rhine they kept relays of horses and oxen to tow boats up-stream, and protected and entertained travelers in exchange for toll.

Although plague and warfare acted like a blight on the country, literature flourished, thanks to the Rhine paper manufactories, which permitted the multiplication of favorite romances.

Baronial tyranny became so galling under the Hapsburgs that the Swiss revolted and fought until they won complete freedom. The romantic episode of William Tell belongs to this period, and tourists often visit his chapel on Lake Lucerne.

The fourth period begins with the death of Huss at Constance and the wars of religion in Germany. The first cannons having been cast shortly before in Cologne, they now came into use, battering down fortresses hitherto deemed impregnable. When the Hussite wars ended, Maximilian

suppressed brigandage, restored order, and encouraged commerce. He also fostered learning, which Gutenberg's recent discovery was to make accessible to all. Fust, at Mainz, furnished capital for the printing of the first Latin Bible, and when the people saw how rapidly precisely similar copies were turned out they whispered that Fust was in league with Satan. This report gave rise to the Faust legend immortalized by Goethe.

The first German Bible, printed at Spire (1472), prepared men's minds for Luther's ninety-five theses, which were publicly burned at Cologne shortly before the Diet of Worms convicted him of heresy. For years wars of religion desolated the Rhine region, leaving countless ruins besides the famous Godesberg Castle. The Thirty Years' War reduced the population from nearly seventeen to less than four millions, and left the survivors in such straits that some resorted to cannibalism. At the end of this war republics were formed at the source and mouth of the Rhine, which became the German frontier. Peace could not last long, however, for Louis XIV., not content with the possession of Alsace, seized Strassburg, which France kept nearly two hundred years. The wars of the Austrian Succession and Seven Years' also left indelible marks on the Rhine region, through which Voltaire passed on his way to visit Frederic the Great, leaving his name carved on the tower of the Strassburg Cathedral, where it is still faintly legible.

Louis XIV.'s extravagance, unfortunately copied by Germans, resulted in the French Revolution. Its first victims were the Swiss Guards whose heroic death is commemorated by the Lion of Lucerne. Horror for this and similar outrages kindled war in Europe; but before the Germans were ready French armies took Mainz, Stuttgart, and Frankfort. The wanton cruelty of the invaders made the peasants rise in wrath and drive them back across the Rhine.

Although the whole left bank of this river was now conceded to France, Napoleon's ambition soon caused new wars, at the end of which the old German Empire ceased to exist, and many princes joined the Rheinbund. But Napoleon's career was not ended, and after the disastrous Russian campaign he was forced to face all Europe at Leipsic. Undaunted by defeat, he refused to accept the Rhine, Alps, Pyrenees, and the sea as France's boundaries, so the war continued. On New Year's Day, 1814, Blücher stood in the Pfalz Castle, watching his army cross the Rhine, and about a year later he helped Wellington at Waterloo and won back the lower Rhine.

In 1817 the first steamship plowed the Rhine, where free navigation was established only in 1869.

In 1870 a dispute about the Spanish succession provoked the Franco-Prussian War. To the surprise and dismay of the French, the German states, joining Prussia, sent their combined forces over the Rhine. Unprepared for war and badly generaled, the French were completely crushed and Napoleon III. surrendered at the battle of Sedan. The German army marched on to besiege Paris, and at Versailles the new German Empire was proclaimed and William, king of Prussia, was hailed emperor. France was forced to pay a huge war indemnity and give up Alsace and Lorraine. The sufferings this war entailed upon both nations created much bitter feeling, and even now, when asked whether certain towns in the ceded provinces are in Germany, a Frenchman invariably answers that they are in Alsace or Lorraine, as the case may be, rather than acknowledge that they belong to the Germans.

On coming home, and while crossing the Rhine, which had again become a German river, the troops heartily sang "Die Wacht am Rhein." Since then the Rhine country has been given up to ordinary pursuits, and in 1883 a Peace Festival was held at Niederwald, where the emperor unveiled a beautiful monument commemorating the unification of Germany. During the past few years it has been visited by tourists from every clime, who on beholding the matchless river flowing near it cannot refrain from hoping that the peace and unity the monument typifies may never again be broken.

COLONIAL HOUSEHOLD INDUSTRIES.

BY ALICE MORSE EARLE.

IN recounting the various influences which led to the success of the Americans in the War of Independence, such as their skill in woodcraft and marksmanship, their powers of endurance, acclimatization, etc., etc., I would lay stress on the fact that they really were independent of foreign assistance or supplies, through their vast variety and perfection of household industries. Why should they fear any king, when each man on his farm and each woman in her home held every necessity for life—food, drink, fuel, lighting, clothing, medicine, shelter? Home-made was an adjective that might be applied to almost every article in the house. It is true that the preparation of these home-made supplies involved vast labor and skill; but in the labor all took a part, and all worked unsparingly, so much was accomplished.

The art of spinning was an honorable occupation for women as early as the ninth century, and the wool industry dates back to prehistoric man. The patience, care, and skill ever involved in its manufacture has exercised a potent influence on civilization. As early as 1643 the author of "New England's First Fruits" wrote: "They are making linens, fustians, dimities, and look immediately to woolens from their own sheep." In Virginia prizes were offered for home-raised wool, home-spun yarn, and home-woven cloth. Soon the spinning wheel was whirring in every thrifty house from New Hampshire and Kennebec to the Carolinas.

The "all-wool goods a yard wide" which we so easily purchase to-day meant to the colonial dame or daughter the work of months from the time when the freshly sheared fleeces were first given to her deft hands. The fleeces had to be opened with care, and have all pitched or tarred locks, brands, "dag-locks," and "feltings" cut out. These were spun into coarse yarn, to be used as twine. The white locks were carefully tossed, separated, and cleaned and tied into net bags with tallies to be dyed. Another homely saying, "dyed in the wool," demanded a process of much skill. Indigo furnished the blue shades, and cochineal, madder, and logwood beautiful reds. Domestic dyes of brown and yellow, from the bark of the red oak and the hickory-nut, were universal. Copperas and sassafras also dyed yellow; the flower of the golden-rod, "set" with alum, was the foundation, combined with indigo, of a beautiful green. Pokeberry juice and violet dye from the petals of the flower-de-luce were other home-made colorings. After the wools were dyed the housewife spread them in layers, if a mixed color was desired, and carded them again and again. The wool was slightly greased with rape oil or melted "swine's grease" to be carded—a trying process. At last the wool was carded into small, light, loose rolls, about as large around as the little finger, which were to be spun into yarn.

An old author says, "The action of spinning must be learned by practice, not by relation." Sung by the ancient poets, the grace and beauty of the occupation have shared praise with its utility. The spinner stood slightly leaning forward, lightly poised on the left foot; with her left hand she picked up a long, slender roll of soft wool from the platform of the wheel, and deftly wound the end of the fibers on the point of the spindle. She then gave a gentle motion to the wheel with a wooden peg held in her right hand, and seized with the left the roll at exactly the right distance from the spindle to allow for one "drawing." Then the hum of the wheel rose to a sound like the echo of the wind; she stepped backward one, two, three steps, holding high the long yarn as it twisted and quivered. Suddenly reversing the wheel, she glided forward

with even, graceful stride and let the yarn wind on the swift spindle. Another pinch of the wool roll, a new turn of the wheel, and *da capo*.[1]

An explanation of succeeding details is this: The yarn was wound as it was spun upon a broach, which was usually simply a stiff roll of paper or corn-husk. When the ball was as large as the broach would hold, the spinner placed pegs in the spokes of the spinning-wheel and tied the end of the yarn to a peg. Then she held the ball of yarn in her hand and whirred the big wheel round, winding the yarn on the pegs into hanks or clews. If the yarn was to be woven, the hank was placed on the reel or swift. A quill made from a piece of reed was then placed on the spindle, the wheel again set in motion, and the yarn wound off on the quill, cut the exact length of the loom-shuttle by which the yarn was to be woven into woolen cloth. When wound full the quill was placed in the shuttle and was then ready for the loom. The home-spun yarn was woven in hand looms into heavy cloth, which was washed, dyed, shrunken, dressed, fulled, and then clothed the household. If the yarn was to be knitted it had to be washed and cleansed.

The manufacture of flax was encouraged in all the colonies from earliest days, and it received a fresh impulse in New England through the immigration of about one hundred Irish families from Londonderry, who settled in New Hampshire on the Merrimac about 1719. They spun and wove with far more skill than prevailed among those English settlers who had already become Americans. They established a manufactory according to Irish methods, and attempts at a similar establishment were made in Boston. There was much public excitement over spinning. Women, rich as well as poor, appeared on Boston Common with their wheels, thus making spinning a popular holiday recreation. A brick building was erected as a spinning school and in 1737 a tax to support it was placed on carriages. Again from 1765 to 1770, previous to the Revolution, and in 1789, in revulsion of feeling at the extravagance of administration after the Revolution, these "spinning bees" were held in New England towns, frequently at the house of the minister.

In Virginia the colonists found flax growing wild, but the first governors also encouraged its cultivation. In 1622 excellent flax was sent to England. Spinning schools were ordered in each county, where young children could be taught to spin and weave flax. Thomas Tusser[2] says in his "Book of Housewifery":

> Good flax and good hemp to have of her own,
> In May a good housewife will see it be sown.
> And afterwards trim it to serve in a need;
> The fimble to spin, the card for her seed.

The culture of the flax plant was but the first of the many labors of the housewife to acquire her beloved fine linen. It was sown like grass-seed, and when four inches high was weeded by women and children, who worked without shoes in order not to injure the delicate plant, and who labored always facing the wind, that the breeze might favor any downtrodden plants and help them to rise. In July the hemp was ripe and the plants were pulled up by the roots and laid flat on the ground a day and a night. Then it was rippled with a heavy comb fastened on a plank, called a ripple comb. This process broke off the bolles, or seed-capsules—the bobs they were called. Two ripplers sat at either end of the bundle of stalks and struck it alternately. Then the stalks were tied in bundles, called bates, and stacked. Soon it was watered, to rot the leaves and softer fibers. This was done preferably in running water, as the rotting flax poisoned fish. Stakes were set in the water in the form of a square and the bates of flax were piled in solidly, each alternate layer at right angles with the one beneath it. Heavy stones were piled on top. In four or five days the bates were taken up and the rotted leaves removed. A slower process was called dew-retting or rotting, whereby the flax rotted slowly while spread on the grass, after which it was thoroughly dried.

A brake of wood was then applied with violent blows to separate the woody part, or

bun, from the fibers, "to take out the hexe from the rind." This was done twice, once with an open-tooth brake, once with a close brake. Then it was swingled, or scutched, with a scutching-block and knife, to take out any small particles of bark that might adhere. All this had to be done in clear, sunny weather, when the flax was as dry as tinder. The clean fibers were next made into bundles, called strikes. The strikes were swingled again, and from the refuse, called swingle-tree hurds, coarse bagging could be spun and woven. After being thoroughly cleaned the rolls or strikes were beetled, that is, pounded in a wooden trough with a pestle-shaped beetle until soft.

Then came the hackling, or hetcheling, the fineness of the flax depending upon the number of hacklings, the fineness of the various hackles, or combs, and the dexterity of the operator. In the hands of a poor hackler the best of flax would be converted into tow. The flax was slightly wetted and drawn through the hackle-teeth, and the short fibers were pulled into one continuous thread. The threefold process had to be all done at once; the fibers had to be separated to their fine filaments, the long threads laid in untangled line, and the tow separated and removed. Often six fine heckles were used. The fibers then were sorted according to fineness, a process called spreading and drawing. So after over twenty skilful manipulations the flax was ready for the most dexterous process of all, spinning, and was wrapped round the spindle.

Seated at the small flax wheel, the spinner placed her foot on the treadle and spun the fiber into a long, even thread. Hung on the wheel was a small bone, wood, or earthenware cup filled with water, in which she moistened her fingers as she held the twisted flax. The thread was wound on bobbins; when all were filled the thread was wound off in skeins on a reel. An invention called a clock-reel counted the exact number of strands in a knot or skein and ticked when the requisite number had been wound, when the spinner would stop and tie the skein. A quaint old ballad has the refrain:

> And he kissed Mistress Polly when the clock-reel ticked.

That is, he seized the rare and propitious moments of Mistress Polly's comparative leisure to kiss her.

Usually the knots, or lays, were of eighty threads, and twenty lays made a skein, or slipping. To spin two skeins of linen thread or weave six yards of linen was a good day's work; for it a spinner was paid eight cents and her "keep."

These knots of thread were light brown in color and had to be bleached. They were laid in warm water for four days, the water being frequently changed and the knots constantly wrung out till the water came from them clear and pure. Then they were "bucked," that is, bleached with ashes and hot water, in a bucking-tub, over and over again, then laid in clear water for a week. Afterward came a grand seething, rinsing, beating, washing, drying, and winding on bobbins for the loom. Sometimes the bleaching was done with slaked lime or with buttermilk. Flax was not easily dyed. Indigo for blue and oxide of iron for yellow were the only sure dyes.

After the linen web was woven it went through at least twoscore other processes, those of bucking, possing, rinsing, drying, and bleaching on the grass; the last was called crofting in England and grassing in America. In all over forty bleaching manipulations were employed upon "light linens." Thus at least sixteen months had passed since the flaxseed had been sown, in which truly the spinster had not "eaten the bread of idleness." In the winter months the fine, white, strong linen was made into "board cloths," or table-cloths, sheets, pillow-biers, aprons, short gowns, gloves—cut from the spinner's own glove pattern—and a score of articles for household use. These were marked, and sometimes embroidered with home-dyed crewels.

In early days spinning was done on the ancient rock, or hand distaff, by which a very fine thread could be made. In 1642 a law was passed in Massachusetts that

children "set to keep cattle shall also be set to some other employment withal, such as spinning upon the rock, knitting, weaving tape, etc." I heard recently one of our historians refer in a lecture to this colonial statute, and he spoke of the children "sitting upon a rock" while knitting or spinning, etc., evidently knowing nothing of the proper signification of the word.

The first, and most natural, way of lighting the houses of the colonists was found in the fat pitch-pine, which was plentiful everywhere; but as soon as domestic animals increased candles were made, and the manufacture of the winter supply became the special autumnal duty of the thrifty housewife. Great kettles were hung over the kitchen fire and filled with hot water and melted tallow. At the cooler end of the kitchen two long poles were placed from chair-back to chair-back. Across these poles, like the rounds of a ladder, were placed shorter sticks, called candle-rods. To each candle-rod were tied about a dozen straight candle-wicks. The wicks were dipped again and again, in regular order, in the melted tallow, the succession of dippings giving each candle time to cool. Each grew slowly in size till all were finished. Deer suet was used as well as beef tallow and mutton tallow. Wax candles were made by pressing bits of half-melted wax around a wick. A natural and apparently inexhaustible source of material for the manufacture of candles was found in all the colonies, especially in the vicinity of the seashore, in the waxy berries of the bayberry bush, which still grows in large quantities on our coasts.

The most trying and burdensome domestic duty of early spring was the annual making of soft soap, which was such an important article for home use. All the refuse grease from cooking, butchering, etc., was stored through the winter, and wood ashes from the great fireplaces were also saved. The first operation was to "set the leach" for making the lye. Many families owned a strongly made leach-barrel; others made a sort of barrel from a section of the bark of the white birch. This barrel was set at a slight angle on a circular groove in a wood or stone base. The barrel was filled with ashes, and water was poured in till the lye trickled or leached out through an outlet cut in the groove. The water and ashes were frequently replenished as they wasted and the lye accumulated in a tub or kettle. It then was boiled down and when it was strong enough to hold up an egg was ready for soap-making. The grease and this lye were then boiled together in a great pot over a fire out of doors. The soft soap made by this process seemed like a pure, clean jelly, and showed no trace of the repulsive grease that helped to form it. A hard soap also was made with the tallow of the bayberry, and was deemed especially desirable for toilet use.

It has been said that the snow-shoe and canoe as made by the Indians could never be improved. To these might be added the split birch broom, or splinter broom, also the invention of the Indians, but made in every country household in New England in colonial days. The branch of a large birch tree was cut eight feet long. An inch-wide band of the bark was left about eighteen inches from one end, and the shorter and lower end was cut in fine, pliable slivers up to the restraining bark band. A row of slivers was cut from the upper end downward, turned down over the band, and tied firmly down; then the remainder of the stick was smoothed into a handle. These brooms were pliable, cleanly, and enduring, and as broom-corn was not grown here until the latter part of the past century they were, in fact, the only brooms of those days. They were made by boys on New England farms for six cents apiece and bought by the country storekeepers in large numbers for the cities' use. Major Robert Randolph told in fashionable London circles in 1750 of walking in his boyhood in New Hampshire ten miles to Concord with a load of these brooms on his back to sell for his only spending money.

These were not the only domestic utensils that the boys whittled, for in the universal manufacture of household supplies the boys joined; and, as Daniel Webster said, the

Yankee boy's jack-knife was the direct forerunner of the cotton-gin and hundreds of other Yankee inventions. The boys from earliest days made trenchers and trays, wooden pans in which to set milk, and wooden bread troughs. They made also butter paddles of red cherry, noggins, keelers, rundlets, flails, cheese-hoops, cheese-ladders, salt-mortars, pig troughs, pokes, sled neaps, axe-helves, box traps, reels, bobbins, handles for all implements, hay-rakes, and scores of other wooden implements. They also employed themselves in sticking wire teeth in wool-cards. The strips of pierced leather and bent teeth were supplied by the card manufacturer, and the children received a petty sum for the finished cards. In every household every spare moment was occupied in doing something which would benefit the home.

INSECT COMMUNITIES.

BY ANNA BOTSFORD COMSTOCK, B. S.

THE workers constitute by far the greater part of the insect societies; as their name implies, they carry on the industries and business affairs of the community. In the case of ants, bees, and wasps the workers are females whose reproductive organs are undeveloped. In the termites the workers are both male and female, but with similarly rudimentary reproductive systems. Thus it seems that the bearing of young is found incompatible with business life in insect societies.

Not so, however, is the care of the young; this is always considered one of the most important of the industries of the commune. Among the bees and ants the care of the young is relegated to the younger sisters, although the elders do not scorn these duties if they find their performance necessary. However, the first work of the ant or bee just emerged from the pupa state is that of nurse, and a most tender and devoted one she is. Especially are the ant nurses solicitous about the health and comfort of their small charges. In some species the young ant grubs are assorted into sizes, those of the same age being kept in the same apartment, suggesting a graded school. When the ant babies are hungry they stretch up like young birds, and their nurses regurgitate partly digested food into the gaping, hungry mouths. The nurses keep them very clean by licking them with their long tongues, and, what is more interesting, are very careful to keep them in the right temperature. When the sun shines hot on the nest in the morning the nurses carry their charges to the lower compartments, but toward night they carry them again to the upper nurseries. The nurses show great interest in the young when they emerge from the pupa state, helping them to straighten out their newly freed antennæ and legs, then taking a hand at their education by leading them around the city and showing them the ways of the formic world.

All the members of the insect commune are shining lights in their devotion to the young. The moment an ant nest is attacked those citizens who are not detailed to fight the intruders will snatch up the babies and flee with them to places of safety, or when hard pressed will fight to the death for their protection. This is worthy of note, since it is not the mother instinct for saving her young but is a race instinct instead. It may here be stated that the objects popularly known as ants' eggs are not the eggs, but the young grub ants; the eggs are too small to be seen well with the naked eye.

The more successful the insect colony the greater the number of young. Consider once the labor of the bee nurses, who may have, in strong colonies, 12,000 hungry babies to feed every day. The work of the young bees is truly onerous, for they not only have to be children's nurses but also have to feed the queen and drones, construct the comb, cap the larvæ cells, keep the hive clean, and keep it well ventilated

by a process of draughts set up by using their wings for fans.

To secure the food for the whole society occupies the time of the older and majority of the members of the colony. Among the bees the workers are physically modified for their labors. The hind legs are broadened and concave above so as to form baskets for the carrying of pollen. Between the segments and the lower side of the abdomen are glands for the secretion of wax. Two segments of the hind leg are formed so as to make forceps to remove the plates of wax after they are secreted.

One of the most taxing of the bee industries is the making of wax. Bees gorge themselves with honey, then hang themselves up in festoons or curtains to the hive, and remain quiescent for hours; after a time wax scales appear, forced out from the wax pockets. The bees remove these scales with their natural forceps, carry the wax to the mouth, and chew it for a time, thus changing it chemically. Thus it may be seen that wax-making is a great expense to the colony, for it costs not only the time of the workers, but it is estimated that twenty-one pounds of honey is required to make one pound of wax. As a matter of fact much of bee labor is that of the manufacturing chemist. Raw material does not suit their fastidious taste, thus all the honey, their chief food, they take from the nectaries of flowers as cane sugar, and in the honey stomach mix it with a secretion which changes it into grape sugar.

Bees are unwearying workers; they share with the workers of other insect societies an utter recklessness as to their own individual safety and preservation. When a bee goes out for honey she also collects pollen, so that she comes back heavily laden and flying low and slowly. It is no wonder that an ancient Greek writer, noting the pollen upon the legs of a laden bee, states that on Hymettus[1] the bees tie little pebbles to their legs to hold them down. The lavish wastefulness of individual life is shown by the relative longevity of bees during the working and resting season. Those individuals matured in the fall will live eight or nine months, while in the height of the honey season a bee will wear herself out in a month.

The hours of labor among the ant workers are greater than among bees, as they have been observed working until late at night. Some of the species in hot countries wisely do their labor at night, resting in their nests during the heat of the day. There seems to be more originality and variety to the labors of the ant workers than we find among bee workers. The foragers bring back a great variety of food for the housekeepers and the young. Certain species in dry countries provision their nests for the winter. The ants perform herculean labors while excavating their tunnels as well as when carrying great burdens of food. The worker ants have a delightful habit of taking naps when they are tired. McCook describes their sleeping positions thus:

> Some are squatted down on their abdomens and last two pairs of legs; some lie upon their sides; some are resting upon the hind legs, standing on tiptoe; some are crouched upon the earth with faces downward; several are piled one on top of another.

When they awaken they stretch and yawn in the most naïve and human manner. In an ants' nest one thing is most noticeable: however crowded the galleries may be, and however much the ants may be obliged to crawl over and push each other, they do it with the utmost good nature. Another noticeable thing is the free way in which the foragers feed the hungry. An individual seldom asks in vain for food. In spite of their thriftiness, the instinct of sharing is stronger than the instinct of accumulation. The generosity of these insect citizens toward each other is an ideal which still lies beyond the horizon of accomplishment in the human world.

The termite workers are of both sexes, and their industry is such that they prove a terrible plague in the tropical countries where they abound. Our native species tunnel their nests in wood, and are, in fact, very skilful engineers, for they build covered ways under which they work. A feat not only of engineering skill but skill in reason-

ing came under our eyes in our own formicary. A piece of rotten wood tunneled by termites was put on a formicary which consisted of a board surrounded by a moat filled with water. As the queens of our native termites have never been discovered, we are unable to keep these little creatures contented in artificial nests. Thus the ones under observation were always seeking avenues of escape. They tried the moat at every point. Finally they observed that one end of their nest-log projected out beyond the outer edge of the moat, although several inches above it. At once they commenced building a covered way straight down from the projecting end, thus bridging the hated ditch with great neatness and despatch.

Only among termites do we have a strictly soldier caste. These are both males and females, and are distinguished by having very large heads, armed with strong jaws. The soldiers never do any work for the colony, but hold themselves within the nest, ready to defend it in case of attack. Strike a termite nest with a stick and instantly the little workers, busy with construction, will disappear, and the soldiers will rush out pell-mell, ready to throw themselves upon the intruder. If they see no enemy they retire and their places are taken by the workers, who proceed to repair the nest with great rapidity. The soldiers have a habit of striking their great jaws against the wood of the nest, making a clicking sound; the workers respond to this signal with a hiss. Some naturalists have believed this knocking by the soldiers was an assurance that the coast was clear. Some have believed it was a command to hasten, as the workers seem to hustle about faster after hearing it. As the termites do not carry on wars, the termite soldier is a guard to the nest rather than an aggressive foe.

Among bees and ants the soldiers are workers imbued with the spirit of warriors; as they are all females they may well be called Amazons.[2] Here the industrial energies of the peaceful citizen are changed into a fighting spirit under provocations most human. In the history of all the battles of earth we have no records of more reckless bravery or more undaunted facing of death than we find in the battles of bees and ants. The recklessness of the individual for its own life is shown by the fact that a bee, ant, or wasp, will attack a man or a horse single-handed, without a moment's hesitation.

Division of labor is carried to extremes among the honey ants. In this species there is a caste whose business it is to form reservoirs for the storing of food. The storage individuals receive all the honey which the workers bring in. The crop becomes much enlarged, until it distends the entire abdomen. One of these little honey vats looks like a large currant, with head, thorax, and legs attached to one side. These very accommodating citizens hang to the roofs of the galleries of the nests, and during seasons of famine give up to their hungry sisters their surplus honey.

The detailing of certain duties to certain individuals has been alluded to in the discussion of the use of young citizens as nurses. Among the leaf-cutter ants of Texas the citizens work in gangs or relays. Certain individuals climb the trees and cut off the leaves, which drop to the ground; there they are gathered up by other individuals, who carry them to the nest. Mr. McCook reports seeing three divisions thus at work in one ants' nest. He has evidence also that in some species the ants work in divisions while excavating their underground tunnels. This shows that they have a comprehension of the value of economy in labor.

The driver ants of Africa form living bridges and ladders, through individuals clinging to each other until the rope is long enough to reach the desired point. The marching hordes behind pass over these living bridges.

In the nests of bees, ants, and wasps, sentinels are stationed at the entrances, who give alarm in case of attack. In one species of ants, who make the entrances to the nests very small, the sentinels use their own heads for the gates. The advantages of this living portcullis are obvious, as no enemy could

surprise the nest without awaking the sentinel. Ants, as a general thing, are careful about closing up their doors at night.

Mr. McCook gives most interesting accounts of the duties of the gate-closers in the nests of the Occident ant. The gate-closers work both from the outside and inside, the last ones outside leaving a small opening through which they push into the nests, finishing the task from within. One of the species of slave ant defends its nest by throwing up earthworks at the gates, so as to impede the progress of the invaders.

The property of insect societies consists of their dwellings, stored food, live stock, and slaves. We are met at the outset with the question whether insects have a true sense of property. If property be defined as a legal right to the ownership, use, enjoyment, and disposal of a thing, then we have certainly much to prove. The laws of insect communes may only be known through the actions of the communists. To us it seems that their sense of property is such as characterizes primitive peoples, whose unwritten laws are defined by brute force. The haste with which the ants remove their youngsters in case of attack could scarcely be classed under the name of property rights, although in no instance does the mother of the young act as their defender. The state cares for the children, and the state defends them. However, the situation is somewhat different when it comes to the question of stored food. The bees and the agricultural ants store up food in the summer for use in the winter. Our common ants use plant lice for their milch cows, and in all of these cases the owners show by their actions a clear sense of property rights.

That bees have this sense is shown through their actions in defending their stores from other plundering swarms. Bee-robbing usually takes place when there is little nectar to be taken from flowers, and probably hunger incites to ill-gotten gain. It is interesting to note that strong colonies are seldom attacked, the weaker ones being the victims. The fury with which the owners of the honey will fight for its retention is sufficient, when once seen, to convince any doubter that bees, at least, have a sense of property. When the robbed swarm is overcome and the queen killed, the bees will desert and join the robbers, and help carry their own stores to the hive of the marauders. This shows that it is a matter of property and not individual animosity which inspires them, otherwise they would fight to the death. Bee-hunters say that when taking up a bee-tree, or a bee-hive for that matter, the bees will fight furiously until their comb is actually broken; then they give up, and, defeated and despairing, cluster on the broken comb, making no farther effort to save themselves. There is something touching in the story of these brave little defenders of stores and home and their utter discouragement when they see their treasure broken and ruined. "Taking up" bee-trees and bee-hives is a barbarous performance and does not redound to the honor of man; and the thought of it quite reconciles one to all of the bee-stings inflicted upon the *genus homo* since time began.

Another sign of the sense of ownership of stored provision is the care given it by the harvester ants of Texas and of India. These wise harvesters store their seeds in underground granaries for winter use. After the rains come, the grain, if let alone, would naturally germinate or become moldy. The ants comprehend this, and when good weather comes again they bring the grain up and dry it in the hot sun, and then return it to the granaries.

Of all the property belonging to ants, probably the plant lice are cared for with most forethought and intelligence. The fact that the ants used the aphids for milch cows was discovered nearly a century ago, but the special care given to their live stock has been a subject of more recent study. Almost any one may have observed ants running up and down the trunks of trees and shrubs. It is no joy of climbing nor desire for a wide outlook that leads the ants to ascend trees, but because the leaves of the trees afford pasturage for their small cattle, the aphids. These little creatures

exude voluntarily drops of a sweet liquid known as honey dew. The process of milking is this: the ant comes up to the aphid and pats it on the back with her antennæ, at which the flattered and pleased aphid gives forth the honey dew, which the ant eats with every sign of enjoyment. It might seem at first glance that the benefits of this relationship accrue only to the ants. However this is not the case. The ants are fierce defenders of their flocks and make it very uncomfortable for the many insect enemies of the aphids. Some species of ants build sheds over the aphids upon the trees, and other species remove them to the safety of their own nests; but the special claim of the ants as aphid protectors lies in the care of the aphid eggs, which are shown as much attention as their own.

This habit of ants has proven of economic importance to our farmers of the middle West. One of the serious pests in that region is the corn-root plant louse. Professor Forbes has demonstrated that these corn-root lice are absolutely dependent on the ants which live in the earth of the corn-fields. Ants fetch the last brood of aphids in the fall into their nests, and there the oviparous generation is developed and the eggs are laid. The ants give these eggs great care, taking them into the deeper galleries during cold weather and fetching them to the surface in warm days. When the young aphids hatch, the ants take them and place them upon the corn roots, and thus gain a nucleus for their summer herds. This shows a process of reasoning on the part of the ants, since they do not feed upon corn roots themselves and yet seem to know that the aphids require this food.

GERMAN SOCIAL DEMOCRACY.

BY PROF. JOHN W. PERRIN, PH.D.

OF ALLEGHENY COLLEGE.

THE earliest socialism of the nineteenth century was the offspring of two great revolutions occurring in the eighteenth. That of Robert Owen came from the industrial revolution in England. That of St. Simon was the result of the revolution in the world of thought occurring mainly in France through the influence of Montesquieu, Voltaire, and the Encyclopedists.[1] Neither of these can be considered revolutionary in the ordinary sense; both were non-political. The aim of Owen was to complete the industrial revolution; that of St. Simon was little more than to further the work begun by the French philosophers.

This type of socialism perished in the Revolution of 1848. Since then it has been political and revolutionary. Its chief homes are no longer in England and France, but in Germany and Russia. That which has grown to greatest proportions is the German social democracy. Its creed is the legitimate offspring of the democratic communism of the young Hegelians.[2] It assumes the rôle of its prototype in the first French Revolution and seeks the overthrow of all existing order that it may establish the social democratic state.

There is division among the Social Democrats on the question of the form of government to be set up in the social state. There are those who favor a strong central government. Others exclude entirely the idea of a federation from their ideal, and adhere to the doctrine of Proudhon[3] that "government of man by man, in every form, is oppression." They believe that "each man should be a law to himself" and all supreme government abolished. Though there is division on the question of government, the party is one in the belief that the new social order can come only by the subversion of existing institutions. Consequently it attacks the state, derides patriotism, opposes religion, seeks the destruction of the family, and endeavors to set up communism in the whole life of the people. August Bebel,[4] one of its representative

leaders, has said, "In politics we are republicans, in economics socialists, in religion atheists." This is the gospel of chaos, preached so successfully as to create the largest political party in the empire.

Socialism had little foothold in Germany before 1848. It was the opinion of Prof. Lorenzo von Stein, in 1842, that "Germany need not fear socialism, for, unlike France and England, she had no proletariat to speak of." But even then influences were stimulating its development. A few propagandists, among them Karl Marx, had begun to urge the need of a new social order. There was already a socialistic philosophy derived chiefly from the teachings of Hegel, but coming in part from Fichte.[5] A reaction, too, was setting in against the old political economy that had come from the school of Adam Smith in England, in the days of Stein and Hardenberg. And when the Revolution of 1848 came, the spirit of democracy and revolution inherited from the propagandism of 1789 was revived and intensified.

Immediately after the Revolution of 1848 a number of cooperative societies were founded by Schulze-Delitzsch[6]; little else was done. But the possibility of making socialism a working revolutionary force came only with the radicalism of Ferdinand Lassalle. It was in 1862, the year following the accession of William I. of Prussia, that Lassalle began his career of propagandism. He contended that the Revolution of 1848 had freed the fourth estate[7] as the first French Revolution had freed the third. He urged workmen to organize for industrial freedom, and insisted that their only chance to improve their position was in productive associations that would give them the entire benefit of their labor. He claimed, too, that it was "the duty of the state to furnish these associations with capital, to insure justice to all members, and to regulate the markets of the world." He defeated Schulze-Delitzsch before workmen's unions at Leipsic and Frankfort, and then organized the "Universal German Workingman's Association," destined to grow into the Social Democratic party.

Lassalle died August 31, 1864, from the effects of a wound received in a duel. Becker, his successor, was a failure, and for the next three years the "Universal Association" made very little progress. Becker was succeeded in 1867 by Jean Baptista von Schweitzer. Von Schweitzer came from an old and wealthy family of Frankfort-on-the-Main. He was a man of good administrative ability and believed fully in the doctrines of Lassalle, defending them with ability and vigor. It was his aim, as Lassalle had intended, to guide the agitation along national lines. In this endeavor he was thwarted by William Liebknecht[8] and August Bebel. Liebknecht had professed to be a disciple of Lassalle, Bebel had accepted originally the doctrines of Schulze-Delitzsch. Both now had come under the influence of the international socialism of Karl Marx, and they used their influence to prevent the workmen's unions which had sprung up since 1860 from attaching themselves to the national socialism of Lassalle. It was not long before they had formed a party favorable to their cause. Then it was easy to make the transition from the radicalism of Lassalle to the international revolutionary socialism of Marx.

The workmen's unions had been federated in 1863. In 1868 the federation rejected the scheme of Schulze-Delitzsch as entirely inadequate, and declared for international socialism. A year earlier Liebknecht and Bebel had succeeded in persuading a large majority of the members of the Universal Association to accept the international program; and in 1869 the "internationalized" union, with the seceding members from the Universal Association, met at Eisenach[9] and formed the "Social Democratic Workingmen's Party." A little later a party organ was adopted and the work of winning converts was actively begun.

Little was done during the next two years. The Franco-Prussian War prevented the party's making any decided gains. Indeed "the wave of patriotic enthusiasm that swept over the land nearly submerged the socialistic agitation." When peace came the propagation of social democratic doc-

trines went on under most favorable circumstances. War had brought business inflation; this was increased greatly in the first years that followed by the expenditure of the enormous French indemnity, which to many seemed an inexhaustible source of wealth. There was the wildest speculation, and in the end business depression. Wages fell. Men were thrown out of employment. Then they were ready to accept any social vagary that promised them a better future.

There were other reasons, too, why the party grew rapidly between 1871 and 1878. In 1874 the peace footing of the army was fixed for seven years at 401,659 men. To support this vast armament the resources of the nation were being drained. In 1876 the imperial budget fixed the necessary expenses of the army at 252,099, 350 marks; two years later this sum was exceeded by 97,797,473 marks. In 1875 Liebknecht's labors to bring the members of the Universal Association remaining true to the principles of Lassalle after 1869 into the Social Democratic camp were crowned with success. In that year at Gotha[10] the German socialists were all united into one body.

The result of business depression, increased taxation to support what was probably the costliest military system the world had ever seen, and the union of the socialist forces at Gotha is best seen in the election of 1877. In 1871 the party had cast 124,655 votes and returned only two members to the Reichstag. Now they had elected twelve deputies and cast a popular vote of nearly a half-million. The condition was alarming, but repressive measures were not thought of until the logical outcome of socialism appeared in two attempts to assassinate the aged emperor in 1878. The first was by a youth named Hödel, who boasted of his socialistic opinions. The second was by Dr. Karl Nobling. Hödel inflicted no injury upon the emperor, but Nobling wounded him severely. Then the cry for repression came from all parts of the empire. A bill was introduced by the government to prohibit "the existence and formation of all organizations seeking to subvert the present state and society." The debate that followed is of historic interest. Bismarck prepared the way for an open avowal in favor of state socialism by frankly stating his economic and social beliefs. "He stated that his hostility to social democracy had come from hearing one of its leading members in an open sitting of the Reichstag express his sympathy for the Paris Commune." Nor were the Social Democrats less frank. Bebel declared it to be the wish of his party "to abolish the present form of private property in the instruments of production and means of labor as well as in land." He twitted Bismarck for his association with socialists and especially for his friendship with Lassalle. He also mentioned Roscher, Rodbertus, Rau, Schäffle, Schmoller,[11] and others as political economists with socialistic leanings.

The bill became a law and a temporary success came from its rigid enforcement. At the election of 1881 the Social Democrats, while they still returned twelve deputies to the Reichstag, saw their popular vote sink to 311,961. Now their work was carried on in secret. Socialist editors took advantage of the privileged nature of parliamentary reports and published in full the speeches made by Liebknecht, Bebel, and other socialist deputies in the Reichstag. Bismarck attempted on two occasions to suppress by vote the publicity of proceedings, but each time he was defeated.

In 1879, at a secret conference held at Wahren, Most and Hasselmann urged revolution outright. Later in the year it was voted by a congress held at Wynden, in Switzerland, to reject the revolutionary schemes of the anarchist leaders and to adhere to the policy of "passive resistance" proposed by Liebknecht and Bebel. But the manifesto issued after the close of the congress contradicted this vote most flatly by declaring for the overthrow of the present "insane and criminal" state and social system. Even while the congress was voting its policy of "passive resistance," *The Social Democrat*, the official organ of the party, was proclaiming the necessity of the subversion of all existing order to attain the social democratic state.

The assassination of Alexander II. of Russia by nihilists led Bismarck, at the urgent request of the emperor, to lay before the European powers the need of united action for the suppression of the forces of anarchy and destruction. Russia was urged by Germany to take the initiative. She did so, and invited a conference of the powers at Brussels; but France conditioned her assent upon that of England. The latter declined the invitation and the conference was not held. All that came of Bismarck's efforts was the conclusion of an extradition and dynamite treaty between Russia and Germany.

About this time the Niederwald plot[12] against the royal family was discovered. The authorities were aroused to greater vigilance than ever. Numerous arrests were made, and in December, 1884, two men were executed for participation in the plot. The Anti-Socialist Law was prolonged till September, 1886, and greater police powers were given to local authorities. But these measures failed to check the growth of the Social Democratic party, which now had considerable funds for the propagation of its principles from *The Social Democrat*, whose circulation had greatly increased, though it was published out of Germany.

The result of the election of 1884 was very gratifying to the Social Democrats. They had made a vigorous campaign and demonstrated a strength that no one had suspected. Their total vote was considerably increased over that of 1881 and they had twenty-four seats in the Reichstag. The government now resolved upon a war of extermination. But notwithstanding its vigorous efforts for suppression, the Social Democratic vote rose in 1887 to 763,000. Now for a time the situation was unchanged. This was due to the death of the old emperor and the uncertainty as to the policy of his successors. In the next year occurred the largest strike ever known in Germany. This was in the coal-mines of Westphalia and the Rhenish provinces. It threatened for a time to extend throughout the empire, but after a few weeks it came to an end in a victory for the most part to the miners. The influence of this strike, the almost constant socialist trials, and the agitation over the question of renewing the Anti-Socialist Law added to the ranks of the Social Democrats. Bismarck's insistence that the law be prolonged led to differences between him and the young emperor that resulted in his resignation as chancellor in 1890. The law was not renewed and the exiled socialists swarmed back to Germany. Liebknecht became editor of the *Volksblatt* and the propagandists of the party were more active than ever. In October of this year a congress was held at Halle.[13] Here was reached the logical conclusion of the socialism enunciated at Eisenach when the party was formed. At Eisenach it was the democratic state that was favored. The democratic state was still to the front when the union of socialist forces occurred at Gotha. But at Halle the state had become a reactionary institution which it was right to destroy.

The election of 1890 proved the party to be the largest in the empire. Its popular vote was nearly a million and a half and its representation in the Reichstag had risen to thirty-five. Till now the party's vote had come from the cities and towns. This election gave evidence that considerable advance was being made in the country districts. Since 1890 the party has seen its most rapid growth. The all-absorbing political question during the first half of the year 1893 was the parliamentary struggle over the Army Bill. The government introduced a bill to increase the peace footing of the army nearly 100,000 men. The increased expense was estimated at 69,000,000 marks. The government gave as its reason for the bill the necessity of making the army equal to that of France. The Social Democratic, National-Liberal, and Radical parties united in opposing it on the ground that present taxes were already unbearable and that the people were not able to stand any increase. The government was defeated and the Reichstag immediately dissolved. The new elections were set for June 15. The Social Democrats put all their energy into the campaign.

They worked harder than any of the other parties and made greater gains in the popular vote. They succeeded in electing forty-four deputies, eight more than they had before the dissolution of the Reichstag.

In 1894 Prince Hohenlohe introduced an anti-revolutionary bill which was rejected by the Reichstag. Since then the government has been compelled to employ rigorously any provisions in existing laws calculated to hamper the socialists. But this policy seems to be creating more alarm in the Liberal party than in that which it was intended to repress. The election of 1896 gave the Social Democrats forty-seven deputies and a popular vote of 2,250,000.

The fact that the party's representation in the Reichstag does not correspond proportionately with its popular vote prevents its being a very important factor in the enactment of legislation, except as it may by combination with other parties block proceedings. Even though it is unable to put its pernicious program into the laws of the land, it must be regarded as a constant danger to social order. While its two leaders, Liebknecht and Bebel, are of lower intellectual rank than Lassalle and Marx, they are both able. Both are skilled in debate and the art of party management. The party is without doubt not only the largest but the most thoroughly organized and efficiently led revolutionary body the world has ever seen. It is a constant menace, not only to Germany but to the entire world. Its program of democratic communism and the radical utterances of its leaders give ample justification to the remark of the second chancellor of the empire that "it is the greatest danger which threatens the close of the nineteenth century and the opening of the twentieth."

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

THE RIGHT RELATION OF EMOTION AND REASON IN RELIGION.

[*February 6.*]

IF we should search through Christian history for a good instance of intellectualism and emotionalism personified and set over against each other in hostile attitude, perhaps no better could be found than that of Abelard and St. Bernard at the Council of Sens, in France. Abelard had been accused of teaching some of the rationalism that was spreading over Europe as a result of the first crusade. The accuser was St. Bernard, renowned from his youth for having seen heavenly visions, and for having once brought himself through penance and fastings to the point of death, a monk at whose preaching listening monarchs wept and prostrated themselves at his feet. The accused had been a professor of philosophy at Paris, with hearers by thousands, he being counted the brightest light of his time in all Europe; but he was already under one heavy cloud from that wretched affair of his private life which makes him look to us very much like a man without a heart. He was condemned for heresy and appealed to Rome, but he died before his case was settled.

Abelard stood for the intellectual and St. Bernard for the emotional in religion. The difference here was mainly a matter of temperament, no doubt, as is the case with the same types that are met with again and again in every religious community. Yet there are other causes, such as climate, sex, or the nature of the prevailing religion. We know that the men who live nearest the sun have the warmest hearts, that women show more feeling than men the world over, and that believers in Jesus are more emotional than the followers of Confucius. Indeed we might make a classification of the great religions of the world on this principle, placing on one side the few, such as Brahmanism with its metaphysical pantheism and Confucianism with its cold philosophy, and on the other side the many, such

as Buddhism with its mysticism, Mohammedanism with its fiery zeal, Judaism with its personal Jehovah, and Christianity with its salvation by faith.

But such a classification would not be scientific. Though the subject of comparative religion has at present hardly reached the dignity of a science, yet certain general traits of all religions are pretty well ascertained. Among these are the tendency to infinite ramification and the vigorous growth of new grafts on the old trunk. Moreover every trunk, new or old, soon puts forth the two branches, rationalism and mysticism, which continue to grow side by side. So Mohammedanism has both its orthodoxy and its mystical sufism,[1] founded by a woman. So Judaism had its Sadducees, who said there was "no resurrection, neither angel nor spirit," and its Essenes, who were mystics. So Christianity has had on one side Gnosticism, Sabellius, Socinus,[2] "the vindicator of the human reason against the supernatural," Theodore Parker, and the advanced Unitarians, who make religion an affair of ethics and metaphysics. All these were rationalists.

On the other side Christianity has had Plotinus, with his doctrine of approaching God through ecstasy until the soul is "swallowed up in divinity, bathed in the light of eternity"; Tauler, the German mystic who influenced Luther; Jacob Boehme,[3] the shoemaker-preacher and father of modern mysticism; St. Francis of Assisi,[4] who so literally followed the command "Let this mind be in you which was in Christ" that his body also finally showed the red scars of the crucifixion; George Fox and the Quakers, with their doctrine of "inner light"; Schleiermacher,[5] talking much of "the great world of religion that opened only at the touch of the magic wand of feeling," and of "the consciousness of the noiseless vanishing of our whole being into the immeasurable"; and finally the Moravians and their spiritual grandchildren the early Methodists, who almost made religion a feeling about a feeling. All these were more or less mystics. These two main branches still grow side by side from the same trunk, and although now one and now the other may outstrip its neighbor, they will no doubt both continue to grow till the end of time. If all the virtues lie midway between two extremes, then that religion is best which holds its way along on the safe path, equidistant between the marshy valleys of emotion on one side and the frosty peaks of reason on the other. But this path is hard to follow. Only the few masterly ones can keep it very long. The practical question is, therefore, on which side is it safer for the average man to venture? Our answer will depend on what we take religion to be.

[*February 13.*]

MATERIALS for a definition may be gathered here and there from the fields of psychology, comparative religion, philosophy, and divine revelation. Here an objector may at once demand, "Can there be any exact psychology of religion?" and, "Are beliefs then only psychological growths, comparable to the flora and fauna of continents or oceans?" The answer of course in both cases must be No. Yet a careful search in anthropology, in philosophy, and in comparative theology for what impartial scholars have written about the subject would certainly aid us in making a definition.

What does psychology say, then, about the origin of religion? The replies differ among themselves. According to Epicurus, Lucretius, Hume, Strauss, and others, religion begins in fear—

> fear
> That makes a fetish and misnames it God.

Immanuel Kant, however, based it on the omnipotence of the moral law, and Matthew Arnold, following him, said, "Religion is morality touched with emotion." Again Schleiermacher derived it from the human feeling of dependence and weakness. Then Max Müller and others claim for man a special religious faculty—"a subjective faculty for the apprehension of the Infinite." Still others deny any separate religious faculty, insisting that the old classification of the powers of the soul, as knowing, feeling, and willing, is correct and final. And these

philosophers teach that religion is not mere knowing, as rationalism holds, nor mere willing, as the moralist believes, nor yet mere feeling, as the mystic imagines, but rather a complex phenomenon in which knowing, feeling, and willing are all involved. But they admit that if religion is like the rest of the phenomena of our spiritual life, then feeling came first. Observe now that each of the theories just mentioned makes religion begin in some sort of feeling: a feeling of fear, of moral duty, or of human dependence. This is the dictum of psychology.

Something further may be gathered from the new field of comparative religion. To get at the nature of religion, it is wise to ask what is common to all religions. In brief, then, the points in common are these: definite ideas of God and his relation to the world; definite prescriptions for the behavior of man toward his God; definite advantages which man hopes to obtain from his God; and finally, as a result of all these things, definite moods which rule men, such as fear, reverence, humility, remorse, trust, gratitude, and love. Under the light of this new study, then, religion, in its results at least, appears to be mainly feeling.

Many of the older lights of poetry and philosophy also clearly bring out this element as the essential part of Christianity. And men who have thought and felt so deeply on the matter as to become world-wide authorities thereon are witnesses whose expert testimony may not be omitted from the case. We can admit only a few. A religious philosopher who had no superiors in his own age and few superiors in any age was Anselm of Canterbury. His intellect was acute and inquiring, yet his favorite maxims were, "He who does not believe will not experience and he who has not experienced will not understand," and, "A Christian must arrive at understanding through faith, not at faith through understanding." But he gave reason also its place, requiring that after the faith is held fast the attempt must be made to demonstrate by reason the truth of what we believe. And St. Bernard, the mighty preacher of the second crusade, already cited as an example of emotionalism, was also celebrated, strange to say, as a fair scholar and accurate thinker. Hear his conception of religion:

> As air filled with sunshine is transformed into the same brightness, so that it does not so much appear to be illuminated as to be itself light, so must all human feeling toward the Holy One be self-dissolved and wholly transfused into the will of God. For how shall God be all in all if anything of man remains in man?

Francis Bacon, the father of modern philosophy, granted that there is one realm in which logic is not safe. He says:

> The heathens likewise conclude in that divine fable of the golden chain that judgment is not safe in religion, that men and gods were not able to draw Jupiter down to the earth, but contrariwise, Jupiter was able to draw them up to heaven.

Leibnitz, too, the founder of German philosophy, strongly condemned all attempts to render the mysteries of religion comprehensible by demonstration. Pascal, the mathematician, declared:

> Nothing is so conformable to reason as the disavowal of reason in the things that belong to faith.

Hegel, "the philosopher of the Restoration," believed that

> In religion the Absolute exists as the poetry and music of the heart in the inwardness of feeling.

Hermann Lotze, by far the most important among the more recent German philosophers, when he came to speak of religion, sincerely admitted that

> What is best and fairest and most fruitful in our experience will always be realized in us only in the shape of those living emotions which are superior to the forms of knowledge.

And, finally, Mr. Balfour, in his recent book on the "Foundations of Belief," sums up a part of his testimony in these words:

> The fact is obvious, but not sufficiently considered, that so far as empirical science can tell us anything about the matter most of the proximate causes of belief, and all the ultimate causes, are non-rational in their character.

[*February 20.*]

THE deepest thoughts and feelings of an age or race often find more genuine expression in its poetry than anywhere else. So

it may be fitting here to cite from two poets, one of whom well represented practical England, the other the Middle Ages. Dryden, certainly not a mystic in any sense, in his poem on a Layman's Religion exclaims:

> Dim as the borrowed beams of moon and stars,
> To lonely, weary, wandering travelers,
> Is reason to the soul.

And Dante, crystallizing in his "Divine Comedy" all the Christian theology of the Middle Ages, makes Virgil a type of reason and Beatrice a symbol of faith. Virgil leads Dante with slow steps down circle after circle of Hell, and up the Mountain of Purgation stair by stair; it is the tardy process of the understanding on the pathway of experience. Beatrice does but shine upon him with her radiance, and he rises instantly to the very throne and the beatific vision.

But our highest authority must be revelation. For at least three of the great religions had personal founders. Their origin was therefore subjective, or by inspiration. Now whatever theory we may hold about inspiration, and whether or not we would deny it entirely to the non-Christian faiths, cannot affect the supremacy of any alleged revelation as an authority in everything that concerns its own religion. To know Mohammedanism, we must go to the Koran; to know Judaism, we must go to the Pentateuch; to know Christianity, we must consult the New Testament. And as it is subjective Christianity and that alone which concerns us now, we must listen to the words of St. Paul, St. John, and Jesus. They all make the evidence of inner consciousness greater than that of external testimony. "The natural man," wrote St. Paul, "receiveth not the things of the spirit of God: for they are foolishness unto him: neither can he know them, because they are spiritually discerned." "He that believeth hath the witness in himself," wrote St. John. "Verily I say unto you," said Jesus, "whosoever shall not receive the kingdom of God as a little child, he shall not enter therein."

But St. Paul also said, "Prove all things; hold fast to that which is good." And just this is the function of reason. It is profitable for correction, for instruction, and for doctrine. Reason may judge revelation. Suppose yourself living in Jerusalem, and never having become a devotee of any religion. A Mohammedan, a Buddhist, and a Roman Catholic come to you and each says, "You must accept my creed." How are you to determine which to follow? By reason alone.

Reason is profitable for instruction also in furnishing added proofs to confirm revelation; such, for example, as the four or five proofs for the existence of God. It has discovered, namely, that with all men there is found an idea of God. Therefore there must be a God. It has discovered also that every finite thing has the cause of its being and activity outside of itself. It therefore concludes that the totality of finite things must have the cause of their being and working outside of themselves, that is, in God. It has further discovered that in this world a purpose prevails. This was not set up by things themselves for themselves. Therefore it was set up by a being outside of themselves or by God, an intelligent, purposeful being. Again reason sees that there is a moral law, simply obligatory. The will of man did not make it, but knows itself subject to it. This must have been founded by an absolute law-giver, that is, by God. These proofs, the historical, the cosmological, the teleological, and the moral, as they are called, greatly help to verify revelation.

[*February 27.*]

BUT the intellectual in religion is profitable above all for doctrine. Religion exists of course in the condition of emotion, of sentiment, of vital instinct, before translating itself into rites or intellectual notions. Dogmas are only the language of religion. But language is an organism. It grows and evolves. So does dogma. The variable element in dogma is the intellectual element. And Professor Sabatier, of France, has pointed out that the phenomena of growth of a language and of a dogma are the same. Language, he says, is modified in three ways: first, by disuse; second, by

introsusception, or the acquiring of new meanings; and third, by the renewal of old words or the creation of new ones. Dogmas, he says, have the same history. First, some die, as that of demoniacal possession so prevalent in the first few centuries of Christianity; second, there come new interpretations, a putting of new wine into old bottles, as the restating of the doctrine of inspiration; and third, the putting of new wine into new bottles, as the doctrine of justification by faith in the sixteenth century, which was either a new belief or a revival of a very old one. Reason, then, is profitable for correction, for instruction, and for doctrine. Here the domain of intellectualism ends.

Intellectualism: let us understand ourselves on this matter. It has a pleasing sound, and we moderns are so dazzled by its achievements in the material world that we want to enthrone it in the spiritual world. It is sublime in its place, but let us beware of its encroaching where it does not belong. In the presence of eternity it is helpless. Reason told Plato in Athens that the soul is immortal, but it taught the French philosophers in Paris that death is an eternal sleep. By reason the followers of Aristotle held that the world is eternal; but the followers of Democritus were persuaded that everything sprang from a chance concurrence of atoms. By reason Hume declared there is no solid argument for the existence of God; and Shaftesbury said, "The man who denies the existence of God errs against the well-being of society." Reason has made religion for too many of us a barren desert. It has drawn our beliefs not from the depths of the soul, but from the shallows of philosophy. It has kept God as far removed as possible from our hearts.

Permit me now to use an illustration from D'Aubigné,[6] the learned author of the "History of the Reformation." After he had begun to preach with fulness of faith he was so assailed in going into Germany by the sophisms of rationalism that he was plunged into unutterable distress. He passed whole nights without sleeping, endeavoring by arguments and syllogisms without end to repel the attacks of the adversary. In his perplexity he visited a venerable divine who for forty years had been defending Christianity against the attacks of philosophers. Before him D'Aubigné laid his difficulties for solution. The worthy preacher replied:

> Were I to succeed in ridding you of these, others would soon rise up. There is a shorter and completer way to annihilate them. Let Christ be really to you the son of God—the Savior. If this is settled, the details will not be difficult.

Then they prayed together.

> When I arose from my knees in that room [says this illustrious man] I felt as if my wings were renewed as the wings of eagles. From this time forward I comprehended that my own syllogisms and arguments were of no avail. The habitual attitude of my soul was to be at the foot of the cross, crying, "Do all thyself. I know that Thou wilt do it; Thou wilt do exceeding abundantly above all that I ask." I was not disappointed. All my doubts were soon dispelled, and the Lord extended unto me peace like a river. If I relate these things, it is not as my own history alone, but that of many sincere young men, who, in Germany and elsewhere, have been assailed by the raging waves of rationalism.

This experience of so learned a man is especially helpful to us in modern times, for it is to be feared there are among us too many of the type of Abelard and too few of the type of St. Bernard. It is to be feared that the terms "experimental religion" and "the witness of the Spirit," which were almost the watchwords of our fathers, are not heard so often as they once were. Yet they certainly express what is best in every Christian church. The witness of the Spirit is the most effective answer to the positivism and agnosticism that keep stealing into our minds out of the periodicals and books that we read. For we do read in the daily press the flippant remarks about higher criticism or heresy trials or the world's congress of religions, or we ponder the subtle insinuations against Christianity found in the magazines and reviews, and many of us, more of us in fact than like to confess it, secretly say to ourselves, "Where is this going to end?" At such times the sure antidote is the one D'Aubigné found good.—*Prof. J. W. Thomas, Ph.D., of Allegheny College.*

THE FINANCIAL MARKETS OF GERMANY.

BY RAPHAEL-GEORGES LÉVY.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE FRENCH "REVUE DES DEUX MONDES."

THE Germany of to-day no longer resembles that of former times. Having been for a long time in the wake of other countries, she is striving to-day to take the lead in the commercial and industrial movements of the world. Westminster Hall in London is echoing with the complaints of certain English members of Parliament about German competition. It is certain that not only the foreign commerce of Germany is moving with giant strides, but German houses are taking the places of English houses in many countries of Asia and America; for example, in China and India, which have been the natural domain of England.

Since the money market in the organization of modern nations is the measure of their general prosperity, let us look at that of Germany. We must remark first of all that public finances in Germany, while attaining a satisfactory level, do not give rise to such important transactions as do the consols of Great Britain or the government bonds of France. This comes from several causes, of which the most fortunate for the country is the relatively low figure of its public debt. The interest-bearing debt of the German Empire hardly exceeds five hundred million dollars. The debt of Prussia is higher but it is almost entirely represented by the thirteen thousand miles of government railroad whose profits serve to pay the interest on the debt.

The quotations of the money market of Berlin show a very respectable development. Thirteen hundred different concerns are represented in them, which are half as many as are quoted in London and one and a half times as many as are quoted in Paris. The principal divisions are these: first the course of exchange on Holland, Belgium, Scandinavia, the United States of America, France, etc.; then the government loans, comprising those of Germany and the confederate states, and the loans of cities. Another class is composed of the obligations of colonization companies, of which only one up till now, the German Society of Eastern Africa, has issued stock.

German railroad stock has lost much of its interest and importance since a series of purchases has placed the principal lines in the hands of Prussia and of the other confederate states. Out of twenty-seven thousand miles of line managed in 1896, nine tenths belong to the state.

The stock exchange which comes immediately after Berlin in importance is that of Frankfort. This ancient free city was formerly the most important financial market of Germany. Old banking houses with a world-wide reputation were established here. Some of these still exist but are not distinguished by the same activity as formerly. The swift development of the capital of the empire has had its inevitable effect; the centralization of great business affairs in Berlin has followed the centralization of the government in that city. At the same time the great stock companies have more and more taken the places of the individual bankers who half a century ago had a sort of monopoly in the negotiation of state loans and other financial transactions. The boards of management of the trust companies are drawing to themselves more and more the active power of the banking world. These trust companies, at once vast and delicate, bend themselves to the details of their small patrons and at the same time are ready to sign contracts with governments for loans amounting to hundreds of millions.

Frankfort, though fallen from its former prominence, still remains a great market. It is a place of exchange no less for investments than for speculation. This is shown

at first glance by an examination of its quotations, which are distinguished by the length of the lists; that of foreign railroads, of which the United States of America alone furnish one half, is more developed than at Berlin and proves at once the anxiety of Frankfort people to invest their savings and the large amount of capital so invested.

The stock exchange at Hamburg, as we might expect of a seaport engaged in commerce with all the world, is above all a place of money-changers. It has to furnish to its merchants the drafts they need on other places and be ready at the same time to cash the bills of credit of foreign countries.

The legislation which governs German financial markets is of two different kinds. One kind concerns the stamps which are to be attached to commercial paper. The law of 1885 prescribed a special imperial stamp for which the charges are as follows: government bonds are exempt; German stocks pay one per cent and foreign stocks one and a half per cent of the capital. But these taxes were far from appearing sufficient to a numerous faction of Parliament who did not cease to claim measures of restriction and control against the stock exchange in order, according to their brutal expression, to "bleed it more vigorously." These recriminations go back to 1873, the period of the celebrated crash which upset Vienna and Berlin. The collapse of certain Berlin banking houses revived this hostile feeling and provoked the demand for special legislation. A commission of twenty-eight members, among whom was Mr. Koch, president of the Bank of the Empire, was in session from 1892 to '93 and formulated a plan for a law.

This law was promulgated in June, 1896. According to it a stock exchange may not be opened without the authority of the government. Commissioners of the state are appointed for each exchange as well as a commission of thirty experts named by the Federal Council. The part of the law about dealing in futures is the most important. It gives power to the Federal Council to forbid these bargains in certain commodities or values. It forbids them for gold, for mining stock, and for manufactures, and only authorizes them for other industrial stock when the capital of the company is at least five million dollars. It forbids this kind of bargains in cereals and the products of the mills. A stock market register was instituted to be kept by authorities competent to receive the commercial records. Upon this register are to be inscribed the individuals and the companies who wish to operate in futures. The authority of these records consists in the fact that any business agreement involving a fictitious delivery of the commodity, when concluded between parties not registered, in case of dispute, cannot be carried into court.

The spirit of this legislation is easy to discern. Its purpose is to put all stock exchanges under the direct watch and control of the government. It suppresses dealing in futures in a large number of cases, and where it is tolerated the validity of it is only recognized between persons who have had themselves registered. It decrees Draconian penalties against offenses that are often hard to characterize.

As this law has been enforced only a few months, it is impossible to judge all its consequences. These will be felt little by little, but there is already a general complaint. The effect of the interference of the state is to provoke slanderous accusations, which are brought every day to the commissioners. The red tape necessary for admission into the list of quotations is excessive. The prohibition of bargains in futures has led to the organization of operations in actual delivery, even outside of the regular affairs of exchange, so that the aim of the law appears to have failed entirely in this regard. As to the registry, this too is practically a failure. Only fifty persons in Berlin and nine in Frankfort had registered at the end of six months. The bargains continue to be carried on with nothing but the good faith of the contracting parties to depend upon. This proves in passing that mutual confidence is the

basis of most of the transactions of the stock exchange.

In regard to the prohibition of bargains in futures with cereals, it has had the effect of lowering prices in Berlin since the beginning of the year at the same time that they were rising in Paris. This is the result obtained by the agrarians, who kept repeating without end that dealing in futures had no other effect than to depress natural prices, and that the doing away with it would be the signal for an immediate and permanent rise. It is in vain for them now to struggle and try to prove that commerce is the enemy of agriculture. The natural play of demand and supply and freedom in business are more necessary to the producers of grain than they are to any manufacturer. The police closed last June in Berlin a meeting of a certain number of merchants who had tried to combine for the purpose of exchanging cereals. It will not be long before the countrymen themselves will ask for new legislation which will again open the markets that were so imprudently closed.

It is interesting to trace the history of a German bank. We have chosen a particular stock company that bears the name "Deutsche Bank," because its founding goes back to 1870, a few months before the Franco-German War, and because the different stages of its development mark the financial progress of the country since that period. Founded with a capital of three and three quarter million dollars, it was destined in the minds of its founders to occupy also the countries beyond the seas. In 1881 two successive increases had carried its capital up to fifteen millions of dollars. In spite of the crisis of 1882, which was particularly severe in Paris, and in spite of the bad condition of affairs in America, the year was not a bad one for the bank, thanks to the regular increase of the patronage of the establishment. In 1886 the directors of the bank established a branch house in Frankfort and another with a capital of two and a half million dollars in Buenos Ayres. In 1888 it had a capital of eighteen and three quarter millions of dollars. The year 1893 was marked by the failure of the Australian banks, by the American panic, and by the partial suspension of payments in certain European states. The total effect of these events impoverished the German merchants and diminished the consuming power of the nation. The economic struggle between Germany and Russia was at its height, and at the same time the bourse was menaced by the new legislative schemes aimed at it. The Deutsche Bank limited itself to opening a branch house in Munich. The effect of the failure of the Northern Pacific Railroad in the United States, in which it had important interests, was compensated by the abundance of capital on the market and by the income due to a good harvest. So a dividend of ten per cent could be declared in spite of all the adverse circumstances.

In 1895 this bank saw the volume of its debtor accounts increase notably and the figure of its commission increase in proportion. In fact the operations in margins being forbidden, not only in cereals, but in a large number of industrial stocks, a patron who desires to operate in these things applies to his bank, which buys them for him for cash, advancing at the same time something on their value until the day when they are again turned into money, or the purchaser pays for them himself. This is an indirect method of reestablishing for the client the dealing in futures forbidden under simple form. In view of the important capital that this new employment absorbs, the bank in 1895 raised its capital to twenty-five million dollars by issuing five million dollars of new stock that sold at one hundred and fifty. The same year the bank realized great profits in South America and took part in important mining enterprises in South Africa.

The number of employees of the bank is thirteen hundred and forty. The deposits in 1896 reached twenty-three millions of dollars. In 1897 it absorbed two more provincial banks, increased its capital, and strengthened its reserve. Its stock is quoted at the double of par. Its capital is now thirty-seven and a half million dollars. It has a network of branch houses reaching

all over the country, without counting the establishments abroad.

If this bank has been at the head of the financial movement it has been followed by many others. In less than twelve months, in 1895, the bank of Dresden increased its capital by three and three quarter millions. At the end of the year the six great banks of Germany had increased their capital by an average of more than twenty per cent for the year.

The companies dealing in mortgages on real estate have made similar progress. One mortgage company, that of the Rhine, already twenty years old, has made loans of over sixty millions of dollars. Only two ninths of its obligations now pay four per cent, the rest being reduced to three and a half. Similar progress has been made by many other mortgage companies. The total capital lent by these companies exceeds one and one fifth billion dollars.

The six greatest banks of Germany do not limit themselves to discounting and loaning. Their deposits, properly speaking, amount to only sixty million dollars, or half of the capital stock. Five large English banks similar to these in importance have, on the contrary, with a paid-up capital of about fifty million dollars, deposits amounting to three billions, or twelve times the amount of capital. An annual difference of one per cent between the interest made good to the depositors and the interest collected by the English bankers amounts to six million dollars, or twelve per cent on a capital of fifty millions. The bankers at London are therefore much better paid, while at Berlin the establishments combine the business of a bank and that of a financial association. This double aim compels them to have much greater capital, which they need to make the loans or to subscribe to stock, while in England the capital is hardly anything more than a guaranty.

There is hardly a day when we do not read on the fourth page of our journals the prospectuses of new enterprises. Almost all these are issues of stock by industrial companies and the public buys the stock of the bankers. The stock of the coke ovens of upper Silesia, issued last May at one hundred and sixty-two, immediately rose to one hundred and seventy-five. The stock of the Germania Brewery is quoted at one hundred and thirty-three, with a dividend of seven per cent. We might continue for several pages this enumeration of prospectuses, at the bottom of which are found again and again the signatures of many of the banks and bankers of Germany.

We are far from saying that everything in this violent movement is praiseworthy. Cool observers begin to think that the public is warming up beyond what is reasonable, and point out that more than once an excessive rise in industrial values has been followed by violent reaction. Enthusiasts reply that the profits realized justify the prices. However it may be, admitting that the stock exchange has committed, and is still apt to commit, excesses, it is undeniable that the industrial expansion of Germany does not stop. A simple fact of statistics places in strong light that evolution which has changed an agricultural country into an industrial nation. Until 1875 Germany exported agricultural products. To-day she imports not only grain, but meat, bacon, eggs, and other objects of nutrition, to the amount of five hundred millions of dollars more than she exports. Manufactures, which employ twenty and one fourth million souls, and commerce, which employs six million, occupy more than one half of the nation. The increase in births has partly brought about this transformation. In exploiting the riches of the soil, especially iron and coal, the workmen furnish the wherewithal to pay for the food substances which it is necessary to-day to bring from abroad. Germany is not yet at the same point as England, which imports two thirds of the grain that she consumes, but she is no less accomplishing an evolution in this direction which shall be more and more rapid as the rate of her population shall increase. It is necessary to bear this fact in mind to understand the present financial movement of Germany. It is only a result of its industrial activity.

With its population, which in twenty-five

This writ is devised for the preservation of liberty to the end that no one shall detain a free person.

And he adds:

The word freeman includes every freeman, infant or adult, male or female, one or many, whether *sui juris*[7] or under the power of another. For we only consider this: Is the person free?

One of the institutions upon which Englishmen most pride themselves is that of trial by jury. This right of trial by jury as it existed at common law has been secured to the people of this country by appropriate constitutional provisions. The distinctive characteristic of the system is that the jury is composed of twelve men taken from the vicinage, whose duty it is to inquire into the truth of disputed facts. While the judge determines the questions of law which arise at the trial, the jury determine from the evidence laid before them the questions of fact.

Very much has been written concerning the origin of the jury system. Some writers have given it a Teutonic origin, others a Danish, others have ascribed it to the Anglo-Saxons, and others to the Normans. The truth of the matter is that the common law system of jury trial was a very gradual evolution, and that it has existed in the form in which we have it to-day only from about the reign of Edward III. In the earlier time the jury was composed of persons who had personal knowledge respecting the matter in dispute, and they rendered their verdict on their individual knowledge and without hearing witnesses. Now they do not have personal knowledge of the controversy and their verdict must be rendered solely on the evidence laid before them. It was for a long time the custom in civil actions, a custom practiced even in Elizabeth's time, for the successful litigant to give the jury a dinner after they rendered their verdict.

The party with whom they have given their sentence giveth the enquest their dinner that day most commonly, and this is all they have for their labour, notwithstanding that they come, some twenty, some thirty, or forty miles or more, to the place where they give their verdict; all the rest is of their own chuze.

There are some writers who are disposed to claim, not this custom of treating the jury, but the jury itself as having at least a relationship with Roman law, and Mr. Finlason goes so far as distinctly to claim the trial by jury as of Roman origin. It has been pointed out that that which comes nearest in time and character to trial by jury in the earlier days is what was known as the system of recognition by sworn inquest, introduced into England by the Normans, and concerning which Dr. Stubbs says:

That inquest is directly derived from the Frank Capitularies, into which it may have been adopted from the fiscal regulations of the Theodosian Code,[8] and thus own some distant relationship with the Roman jurisprudence.

In attending to this subject William Wirt Howe, formerly a justice of the Supreme Court of Louisiana, and at present the president of the American Bar Association, says in his "Studies in the Civil Law":

The relationship may have been distant, but it seems to be real. The conception of a judge to pass on questions of law, and a jury to pass on questions of fact, was well known in the Roman Republic at least from the days of Sulla and his reforms in criminal procedure. Every case submitted to the *questiones perpetuæ*[9] was tried by a judge and a jury. "It was the duty of the judge to preside and regulate the proceedings according to law. It was the duty of the jury, after hearing the pleadings and the evidence, to decide upon the guilt or innocence of the accused. The number of the jurors varied according to the provisions of the law under which the trial took place, but was always considerable, and we find examples of thirty-two, fifty, seventy, seventy-five, and other numbers. The presiding judge drew the names of the jurors from the urn; each party had a right to challenge a certain number, and the verdict was returned by a majority of votes." It seems highly probable that when the recognition by inquest, as introduced by the Normans, began to assume the form of what we know as a jury, the judges might have been instructed and influenced by Roman experience in giving final shape to the system.

In England, and in the United States as well, there exists a system of admiralty law. The ordinary common law courts had no jurisdiction over maritime causes, but these causes were heard in the courts of admiralty which exercised jurisdiction over crimes and torts committed on the sea or on waters where the tide ebbed and flowed, and over

contracts of marine insurance, affreightment, charter-parties, bottomry bonds, seamen's wages, salvage, supply of materials to ships, prizes, and like matter. In the United States the admiralty jurisdiction extends not only to the sea but to the Great Lakes and to all navigable waters, without reference to the ebb and flow of the tide. It is well understood that the principal rules of admiralty have been derived from the Roman law. The forms and terms of the admiralty are derived wholly from that law, and, as Walker has said, "the experience of twenty centuries has not succeeded in devising any essential improvements." The Supreme Court of the United States has several times said that the admiralty lien is derived from the privileged hypothecation of the Roman law. The procedure of the admiralty courts is quite unlike that of the courts of law or equity, especially as respects suits brought directly against the vessel itself, instead of against its owners.

It is also true that the English and American system of probate law has largely derived its rules from the law of Rome. In England the ecclesiastical courts acquired jurisdiction over marriage and the disposition of the estates of deceased persons on the theory that these subjects were so sacred and spiritual in their nature that the investigation of questions connected therewith ought to pertain to the church. These courts therefore early acquired the right to determine matters relating to the validity of marriage, the granting of divorces, the legitimacy of children, the probate of wills, the appointment of administrators, and the distribution of the estate of deceased persons. In exercising this jurisdiction the ecclesiastical courts regulated their procedure according to the practice of the civil and canon laws.

Hale says, in speaking of the matter, "Where the canon law is silent the civil law is taken in as a director." Mr. Scruton tells us that wills were probably introduced into England by the clergy from Roman sources, and Mr. Coote attributes clerical control over wills to the study of the civil law by the clergy after the teaching of Vacarius.[10] It is certainly very clear that the directions of the civil law have been adopted in cases involving the construction of documents and wills. In the United States we have had no system of ecclesiastical courts in the sense in which these courts existed in England, but the principles of law which those courts established respecting the subjects above referred to have been very largely adhered to by the courts of this country in their adjudication of similar questions.

It seems to be conceded that the early common law relating to corporations was largely derived from the Roman law. Blackstone after ascribing to the Romans the honor of originating corporations remarks, "But our laws have considerably refined and improved upon the invention, according to the usual genius of the English nation." The truth is that the powers and incapacities of corporations under the common law are very much like those under the civil law.

The law of partnership is also largely derived from Roman sources. Mr. Justice Story in his "Law of Partnership" has pointed out in detail the great similarity existing between the two systems in so far as partnership is concerned, and in the main the underlying principles are the same in both.

The commercial law of England was largely shaped by Lord Chief Justice Mansfield, who is regarded as the father of modern mercantile law. Lord Mansfield established this law on principles which he so frequently derived from the Roman law that Junius made it the occasion of a severe complaint against him, alleging that "In contempt or ignorance of the common law of England, you have made it your study to introduce into the court where you preside maxims of jurisprudence unknown to Englishmen. The Roman code, the law of nations, and the opinions of civilians, are your perpetual theme."

Legal scholars are not agreed as to the origin of the law of bailments. An English, Teutonic, and Roman origin has been claimed for it. The common law classifica-

tion of bailments was certainly adopted from the Roman law. Judge Holmes gives the law of bailments a Teutonic origin, and in this he is in part sustained by Mr. Scruton. Space will not permit an examination into the merits of the controversy.

The writers, like Mr. Finlason, who have been most disposed to magnify the influence of Roman on English law have not ventured to claim that the criminal law of England was much affected by it. They have been willing to concede that English criminal procedure was Teutonic and not Roman in its sources. So far as the substantive criminal law is concerned it must be conceded, however, that there are points of resemblance between the statements of that law as laid down in Bracton[11] and the Roman law as contained in the forty-seventh and forty-eighth books of the Digest. The historian of English criminal law, Mr. Justice Stephen, has asserted that the influence of the Roman law is clearly traceable in all Bracton's definitions of the several crimes to which he refers, though it was in all cases adopted with modifications peculiar to England. But his statement is altogether too broad. Mr. Scruton's opinion is the more correct. He says:

> Roman law is only clearly visible in Bracton's account of theft and *injuria*[12]; there are very slight traces of it in homicide, *læsa majestas*, *crimen falsi*, and *occultatio thesauri*[13]; but in wounding, maim, false imprisonment, robbery, arson, and rape, there is, I think, nothing to show any use of the Roman law.

In the opinion of Justice Stephen, while the Roman law of crimes exercised greater or less influence on the corresponding part of the law of every nation in Europe, yet it was in all far more deeply and widely modified by legislation than any other part of Roman jurisprudence. Judging it from what appears in the Digest, the Roman law of crimes was not peculiarly complete or scientific.

The influence of Roman law is particularly marked in respect to equity jurisprudence. It is well understood that courts of equity grew up in England alongside of the common law courts, and that these equity courts had their origin in the fact that the common law courts administering the law by means of juries and according to certain fixed forms and established rules were not able in all cases to afford the relief which justice required. The cases in which the common law courts were powerless to do justice were taken to the king, who was regarded as the fountain of justice, and he administered relief through the chancellor, who was the keeper of his conscience. In this way the chancellor began to exercise judicial functions, and there grew up a chancery court administering justice according to equitable principles. The chancellors until 1530 were, almost without exception, ecclesiastics, and the training of these men had been in the Roman, or civil, law. It was only natural therefore that they should be greatly influenced in their conception of equity by that entertained by the Roman jurists, "understood and interpreted, however, according to their own theory of morality as a divine law." There resulted a system of equity of which it has been said that it was "Roman to the backbone." The jurisdiction of the English chancellor has been compared with that of the Roman prætor. In speaking of the last-named functionary Mr. Pomeroy has been led to say:

> Indeed, his life is prolonged to our own times. The Roman empire has crumbled, the forum is deserted, but the Roman prætor has ascended the judicial tribunals of all modern nations. He sits by the side of the English chancellor; his spirit animates the decisions of British and American judges; he speaks with Holt, and Mansfield, and Stowell, with Kent and Story. His influence will never cease while nations are impelled by sentiments of justice and equity, and their laws are formed upon a basis of practical morality.

(End of Required Reading for February.)

A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER XVIII.

THE HORRORS OF WAR.

THE lilacs of '62 had blossomed and faded. The roses had cast their petals. The gallant Johnston had fallen at Shiloh. The Mississippi had been opened to Vicksburg. Jackson and the Shenandoah had been immortalized. The "Yankee cheese-box" had saved the Union fleet. Grant the conqueror had begun the series of exploits which ended only with Appomattox Court House. The great and good Lee had proved himself a world-general, as wise as brilliant, as gifted as Christian. All these events of success or disaster were occurring, yet Captain Silas Wire, heedless alike of defeat or victory, was steadily pursuing the object of his ambition, the command of the post which was established at Jefferson in the fall of this momentous year. As a mere captain of militia he found himself too circumscribed for his far-reaching projects. He might insult and outrage southern sympathizers and even inflict the extreme penalty on Confederate soldiers taken unawares, but his power, nevertheless, was within bounds. He dared not display his venom too freely; opportunities for lining his pockets with gold had not equaled his expectations.

Morever the taste of power he was enjoying made him all the greedier for more—whetted his already voracious appetite till it became ravening. And just ahead, if he became commandant, he saw everything within his grasp. With the war at full sweep, and likely to continue several years, countless occasions would be afforded of gratifying any passion, whether of avarice or revenge. What cared he which side won in the struggle, if only the struggle lasted long enough for him to humble his enemies?—whose humiliation consisted not only in biting the dust at his feet, but in being despoiled of houses and lands as well. Many a man incomparably less vindictive and desirous of rule would have left no stone unturned to reach the dizzy heights of the coveted office. Nor did he.

Richard Allyn, therefore, was reckoning without his host if he thought he could prevent the appointment by ordinary efforts, or even extraordinary. Indeed there was nothing tangible to be urged against the man, and the very arguments he did offer could be turned by Wire to his own account. His low standing? The government was looking for patriots, not noble birth. His severe discipline? What better recommendation could an officer have? His excessive zeal? In such an hour the loyal must not be too discriminating. A belief that he would use his position for his own interest? Time would test the truth of this. And yet Allyn, devoted to the Union as any crusader to the Holy City, and as watchful of its interests in his narrow sphere as though he were its father, received the news of Wire's appointment with genuine chagrin. For the vigilant captain, contrary to the other's hopes and exertions, was the successful candidate after all.

About this time a measure was shaping which seemed designed to meet his peculiar end. It was the "bone tax." This, it must be explained, was a sum, varied in some degree to suit the purse of him who was to pay it, assessed against southern sympathizers or soldier's families whenever a dead body in Federal uniform or the corpse of a friend to the Union was discovered. The tax was sanctioned but not ordered by the Federal authorities of the state. It can be easily imagined that a bare permission was all the new commandant needed, and that he signalized almost the beginning of his administration with the imposition. It was the rarest good fortune that had ever befallen him—an opportunity surpassing his wildest dreams.

He could now, under pretense of righteous indignation, demand whatever sum he chose and enforce his demand with the aid of troops. Of course the money so collected was property of the government and was expected to be turned over at once; but provision of that kind was a minor consideration. The commandant would collect it, and then—every one knows possession is nine points of the law. His brain became a very caldron of intrigue, hatching schemes whereby he might extort lucre from the luckless friend of the South. He might have said, in the language of Jeroboam, that his little finger was thicker than others' loins; where others laded with a heavy yoke he added to it; instead of whips he used scorpions.

But the gods gave him still longer tether. Shortly after he began to exact the tax a recruiting company was despatched from state Federal headquarters to muster soldiers for the regular service and convoy them to the metropolis. When the officers were sent out there seemed hardly a Confederate force in the state, so thoroughly had it been stripped for the conflict in the South, and little interference was anticipated. But in the vicinity of Jefferson a band of bushwhackers lay in ambush for the raw, undisciplined, almost unarmed recruits, and slaughtered them mercilessly. A little stream near by the battle-field ran blood, and half a hundred poor fellows had lost their lives before their military career was begun.

The commandant could easily have sallied forth from his stronghold to settle the account in a manner becoming valor, but it was far safer and more remunerative to demand an exorbitant bone tax. Accordingly he appraised each victim of that murderous attack—it mattered not to him on this occasion whether the dead man wore blue or gray; he counted all as his meat—at a sum worthy of a king's ransom—and proceeded to collect it. If the unfortunate assessed proved refractory or even hesitated, his tobacco crop or well-filled granary was confiscated; or, if he lived in town and had no resources of the field to fall back upon, the roof over his head was sold, unless he raised the amount against a certain day.

All through the winter of '62 and '63 Captain Wire's office was more like a counting-room than that of a military officer. Hardly a boat passed down the river that was not laden with his merchandise, and the payment was always returned to him in legal tender. Not a dollar did he permit to be expended in supplies for the post. Thus at a time when any money except Confederate currency was almost impossible to obtain he was rolling in wealth. On the most commanding site in Jefferson he erected a pretentious dwelling, showy and out of taste, as delights the newly rich. In this mansion he installed his wife, bedecked with finery she did not know how to wear with ease and waited upon by servants she could not control. She was wretchedly happy, even though she had leisure and audience for her never-ending encomiums upon her child, her husband, and her native state. More than once she begged her husband to let her return to the old drudgery, for which she had spasms of homesickness, only to receive a curse because she would not be a fine lady when she could. Little Sile's playmates, too, though they satisfied him in number and quality, did not meet his father's aspirations. But a panacea for all grievances, domestic, political, military, was at hand. A little tightening of the screws, a somewhat heavier mulct than he had intended, brought again to his face the sardonic grin which sometimes now displaced the habitual moroseness.

It goes without saying that Heart's Delight was assessed its full share of the bone tax, and thereby another perplexity added to the too full list of griefs and responsibilities fallen upon the young mistress. Sometimes she felt that she must break away from it all, and, taking Nell, join her mother and Adolphus, as they wrote urging and even commanding her to do. But the peril of the journey and the probable impossibility of making it at all, together with the weightier consideration of the trust imposed upon her by Captain Seddon, had kept her at her post. Besides, she felt a sacred obligation

to have his hearthstone in readiness for his coming in case he should, by good fortune or ill, secure a brief absence from the army. At best it was but a wreck of a home to return to.

Only twice since that agonizing time when she had heard the militia gallop away in his pursuit had she heard from him. For a week she was racked with suspense. She shuddered at a sound and half swooned at the approach of any outsider, friend or stranger. But her anxiety was relieved by a letter telling how he had eluded his pursuers and was safe again in the heart of Dixie, confirming his confidence in her, and closing with a sentence of indescribable pathos that haunted her for weeks like a frightful dream. But every experience of her life was so hideous now that an additional pang made little difference. Woe succeeded woe as the days the days.

Yet through it all such courageous loyalty to duty upheld her that she discussed the management of the farm with interest and judgment sufficient to extort from Job, unused to seeing women meddle with business, profoundest homage. However, capable as she showed herself in the department for which her countrywomen were considered without genius, it engaged a small part of her attention. Contrasting her own carefree childhood with little Nell's forlornness made her yearn over the child with a more than motherly tenderness. Every day they had lessons in books and music, then a stroll through the pastures or a ride round the fields or any possible diversion that could bring back the twinkle to the bonny black eyes. This companionship, which was the child's salvation, reacted almost as beneficially on Edith herself. The salutary discipline of unselfishness never fails of its reward.

Moreover one is glad to know that in the midst of her angelic thought for others she was human enough to neglect neither her own person nor accomplishments. She dressed her hair as carefully, was as fastidious concerning the niceties of her toilet, and practiced her tones and semitones, her runs and trills and quavers as sedulously as in the old days. Why did she? Does a girl make herself beautiful and attractive for the eyes of children and slaves when her heart is bleeding and her brain often frantic with care? She did. Then why? Ah, dear reader, have you forgotten Pandora's box and the one gift left therein?

On the night of her twentieth birthday, with Nell sunk in the pillows of the great feather bed in moist and rosy slumber and the house wrapped in silence, she placed a light close to the mirror on her dressing-table and seated herself before it. The act may have looked like vanity, yet it was not. But the eyes looking into hers, the coloring, symmetry of feature, the waving hair, and the white, white forehead—in short, the beauty, and the thought that it was her own face that sparkled with charms, must have gladdened her soul. Two years ago Max had written her a birthday letter from Texas and called her a star-eyed goddess—words that sounded strangely extravagant from him and pleased her mightily. She recalled them now as she sat here before her mirror, and wondered what he would say to-night. Had the dark scenes she had passed through seamed her face? Was she less fair now than she had been then? She looked into the glass. No!—a thousand times no!—it told her. The Edith Chester of that day was to this as the calyx-covered bud to the prodigal splendor of the half-blown rose. A flush of joy colored her cheek, to be followed a moment later by a deep blush of shame. Why should she care what he would think of her now? He was dead to her and she to him. They would remain so forever. She rose hurriedly, blew out the light, and fell upon her knees beside the bed. Her prayer was longer than usual. It was a cry for strength to tear out of her heart any memory that conflicted with honor. But next morning the care of her appearance and the practicing went on as before.

She had, at least, ample leisure for all requirements made upon her. Except to Mr. Dupey's and an occasional day at Jefferson, she and Nell went out little. There were no amusements of any kind, and even

religious service was denied. The pastor was a chaplain of the Confederate army, the membership torn with dissension, so finally the church was locked and the key hung out of sight. Yet, burdened with the oversight of servants, mentor to a score of improvident creatures, at once mother, teacher, and playmate to Nell, director-general of the estate, and attentive to her personal claims, as we have seen, she was never idle nor *ennuyé*, although her world comprised less than a thousand acres. Great trials need little company. She hardly missed now the associations which had been almost her life in other days. Her heartaches and vigils and cares and responsibilities were making character and chastening her high spirit into something little short of divine.

But the enormous assessment served by a squad of Wire's men was the calamity which overflowed her cup. Job, with terror-struck eyes, came running in to announce:

"Miss Edie! Miss Edie! 'fo' Gord, heah's ernuhr batch o' soljirs — mehlish. Oh, Lahd! oh, Lahd! whut does dey wan' dis time?"

What indeed could they want? Edith echoed. She had been feeding a small troop of bushwhackers encamped on the creek—was retribution to be demanded? Had Captain Seddon attempted to get home and fallen into their hands?

In the interval between the announcement and her summons to the door to meet the spokesman — he alone dismounted— a dozen ideas, each more chimerical than the last, suggested themselves. She even recalled the commandant's old animosity toward Job, and wondered if it were possible he was going to wreak his vengeance since it was now in his power. He should never, never do it, she vowed to herself. She would defend Job's life and liberty with her own.

With a face white as death, outwardly calm, inwardly a tempest, she politely greeted the soldier:

"Good morning, sir."

"Good mornin'. Air you the mistress?" was the response.

"Yes."

"Is they any men folks to home?"

What could the man mean by that? She paused to think.

"The master is the only gentleman who lives here and he is away, but there are faithful servants in plenty."

"Oh, you needn't be skeered. I ain't goin' to hurt a pretty girl like you. I just wanted to know if you wus the person in charge to deliver this paper to."

With that he handed her the tax bill. At first she was too dazed with fright to comprehend the contents. When she did master her feelings and the paper her first sensation was of relief; the next, consternation.

"A thousand dollars! Why, I don't know where on earth I'm going to raise that much money. You did not expect me to pay this to-day, did you?"

"Well, no, not to-day, but cap'n ain't the patientest man in the world by a long jump, an' he says the gover'ment is needin' the money bad. I guess you'd better make 'rangements to pay it soon as possible."

"Couldn't you possibly wait till I write to Captain Seddon and find out what he wishes me to do?"

"Where is he?"

"In Mississippi, I think."

"Great Lord! the war might be over an' the rebs whipped by that time. No, miss, cap'n's orders wus emphatic, in a week."

"Well, I don't know what Captain Seddon will think of me when he comes home. Oh, mercy! mercy!"

"That's fur you to settle, miss. He'd have to pay it if he wus here. If you ain't willin' to I guess there's a corn crop here —anyway there's plenty of stock. An' cap'n ain't partic'lar, just so's he gets what'll bring the money."

"I shall decide to-day. I must ask advice."

Mr. Dupey, to whom she referred the matter, expressed himself strongly:

"Pay it by all means at once. I will help you dispose of the corn, and if that is not sufficient I can raise the rest on your hemp. John has several notes, I know, but

I don't think you could collect a dollar on those. It will be much better for you to sell the corn and pay the tax than to let Wire seize it. You need not hesitate about taking that liberty with John's property—he left it in your hands. Besides, as the man said, he would have to pay it if he were here. I paid an assessment of eight hundred dollars last week. It is outrageous, scandalous, of course, but Wire has the whip and we've got to haw and gee. Don't worry over money matters, my dear. We are fortunate to keep our lives."

"It isn't the money. If Adolphus were here and I could get money of my own I should not hesitate a moment. I do wish so much to be a faithful steward for Cousin John."

"And so you are—a capital manager—a capital manager. Ask wife if I don't tell her often how you astonish me. You've a long head for young shoulders. It is a shame, though, for a pretty girl to be bothering about business. Girls are made to laugh and sing and break hearts, and after a while marry a handsome young fellow and make his home a paradise. Isn't that so, wife?" He looked fondly at the face beside him and patted her hand tenderly.

Edith could not fail to be strengthened and encouraged by the compliments and advice. The old man's fatherly gallantry touched her and won her to his opinion even before his reasoning convinced her of her duty. She had never liked him half so well before. His age was softening the asperities of his younger days, she thought. Maybe he had never been so cruel as she had supposed. How could such gentlemanly bearing be prompted by other than a kind heart? But when she was about to leave and one of the servants had brought her horse around to the front gate she noticed that the negro's eyes were nearly closed and an ugly gash reached across his cheek.

"Why, Lige!" she cried, with that ready sympathy which made her the idol of her own darkies, "what has happened to your face?"

He looked embarrassed and did not reply.

"Answer Miss Edith, you brute!" thundered Mr. Dupey.

"I wur mean an' mahsteh hed t' beat me," was the shamefaced explanation.

Lige mean! He was the wonder of all the masters round. There was not a more faithful servant in Dixie. Edith shivered and rode away in silence. What a tangled skein it all was! How dearly the descendants were paying for the sin of their forefathers in introducing slavery! To abolish it now seemed destruction; to retain it a crime. But if the North conquered the question would be settled without the masters' intervention. There was a certain relief in the thought.

She paid the tax and a week later her disquiet was driven from her mind by a tragedy so appalling that the minor consideration of dollars was paltry in comparison.

The narration of the event must be prefaced with a line concerning Captain Wire's rage over the escape of the master. As his men had predicted, it was without bounds. He raved and swore till the earth trembled. His punishment of the six unfortunates who had gone to make the arrest stopped little short of death. And when the riot of his frenzy subsided it was into a sullen ire that was biding its time. The position he then held did not permit him to seek the recompense his disappointment demanded, so he waited. But no sooner had he secured the practically unlimited authority of commander of the post, and had gotten his assessments well started and all the affairs of his office into proper shape, than he cast about for some victim in Captain Seddon's stead. Max, Ned, Adolphus, were all out of his reach; likewise the Dupeys, all of whom were fighting for the Confederacy. If only they were at home! Their hauteur toward him made him hate them only second to the Seddons. If George Dupey should get a furlough home!

But—why had he never thought of it before? the old man, their father, was right at hand. "Aha! Aha!" he laughed in his exultation, and the fiends in hell quaked with dread. Yes, yes, this old man Dupey,

with his grand seignior air and his arrogant heart, had lived too long already. His locks should not whiten another month. Let him die and pay the penalty for being —what?—hated by Silas Wire.

The more the captain dwelt upon this death the more it pleased him. For one thing, Mr. Dupey's outspoken animosity to the Union and the disfavor he stood in because of his cruelty to his slaves would temper the criticisms evoked by his removal. For, though Wire told himself he was indifferent to popular opinion, he thought it would be well to keep within the bounds of discretion.

Therefore at the moment Mr. Dupey paid his bone tax the commandant mentally named the hour for his murder. He chuckled over his shrewdness in getting the money first. He would go in person this time rigorously to enforce his orders. There would be no slipping out at the rear and away.

It happened that Lige had been sent to town on an errand, and was standing on the street when the posse, headed by the chief, rode through on their devilish purpose. By some chance also the rumor of what that purpose was spread like wildfire. A group of men near Lige were discussing it and he caught a suggestion from their talk.

"Whutcher say, mahsteh? Whutcher say?" he interrupted eagerly.

"We have heard that Wire has gone out to murder old Mr. Dupey—poor old man!"

"Mahs Dupey! Does yo' mean meh mahsteh?"

"Your master? Are you a servant of George Dupey's father?"

"Yas, sah, I'm Lige. Oh, mahsteh, please don' let 'em! Won' all you gemmuns come ho'pe me sabe meh mahsteh? We's got two shot-guns hid erway an' I kin git 'em. Please, fuh Gord's sake, come! Meh po' mahsteh! Meh po' mistis!"

"We would help you if we could," the same gentleman responded, "but we could do no good. We would only be preparing ruin for ourselves."

Lige waited to hear no more. If there were no help in that quarter he need waste no more words. Forgotten was his errand, forgotten the unmerited kicks and blows, forgotten all the ill treatment of his servitude. Violent hands would be laid on his master. His master! that person regarded with sacred awe from his cradle! Flying across fields, tumbling over ditches, up hill and down he ran with all the speed anxiety could put into his legs. He had no plan in his mind. His only impulse was to get home before the ruffians reached there and give warning.

"Ef Mahs Gawg wus heah dey wouldn't dah do it," he groaned as he ran. "'Ca'se mahsteh's ole dey ain' feahed er 'im, but Mahs Gawg c'u'd whoop 'em an' dey knows it."

The militia were galloping along at a speed that left Lige far behind, notwithstanding his short cuts. They dashed up to the yard, jumped their horses over the fence, and surrounded the house in a trice. One could not possibly have escaped from it. A dozen woolly heads were thrust out of windows and as hastily withdrawn when one of them, who knew the captain, uttered his name. It was to darkies acquainted with his record as overseer a name to conjure the Evil One with.

After arranging guards satisfactorily, with two aids accompanying him, Wire tried the front door, but finding it locked rapped with force to break it in. Mr. Dupey, who was sitting quietly in conversation with his wife and had just perceived the soldiers, answered the knock. The sight of armed men was too common to cause alarm. He felt none at all, even when the captain's diabolic visage met him. More bone tax, he feared, but his apprehension went no deeper.

"Good evening, gentlemen. Walk in," said he with his Chesterfieldian dignity.

The three stepped inside the hall.

"I guess 'tain't no use for us to go no further," said Wire, leering maliciously at his comrades. "We can settle our business here."

"Very well, sir. I am at your service."

"I kinder guess you are."

At a look his men cocked their rifles and stood ready to fire.

At that juncture Mrs. Dupey entered the hall. She stood like a statue, transfixed with horror.

"You'd better go back, old lady," enjoined Wire brutally. "You might see somethin' would sp'il your supper."

"May I ask," said Mr. Dupey, "the meaning of this? Why am I, living quietly at my home, rendering to the Union whatever is demanded, set upon in this manner?"

"Vermin like you can't live forever. If you want any better reason maybe you'll get it where you are goin' in about five minutes."

Wire thought this a tremendous joke and again leered at his companions.

"You've got just that time to say your prayers in," he continued.

Mrs. Dupey fell upon her knees and stretched out her hands imploringly.

"In God's name, spare his life! Take everything we have—our servants, our house—everything is yours! Let me die in his stead, but do not insult his gray hair! For the love of Christ put up your guns! Oh, be —"

Before she finished her husband turned to her, saying,

"Dear wife, go away, do go! I shall try —"

What we shall never know. Perhaps he would have made some plea for mercy, or maybe a brave resistance. Just then the signal was given and he fell dead at the feet of his murderers.

When Lige arrived the soldiers were riding away. The servants, wild-eyed and terror-stricken, stood peering round the corners of the house—all except one group huddled in the farthest corner of the hall, gazing in mute, paralyzed awe upon the result of that bloody deed. The master lay bathed in blood, and above him his wife, her own face and clothing bedabbled with gore, had fallen prostrate in a swoon.

Edith came at the first call and remained till all was over. Then she bore Mrs. Dupey back with her to Heart's Delight. Just as she had acted the mother to little Nell, so now she was daughter to this broken life, far from her sons and bereft of her husband. It is strange but true—and perhaps not strange after all—that the manner of one's dying, like the mantle of charity, covers many an imperfection in one's living. Let a coward die as a hero and a hero he remains. All his life a man's unloveliness may repel us, but if his death excite our pity or invite our admiration we forget his unworthy traits and remember only the good. The human heart is wonderfully kind. In its natural state the Bible portrays it as lamentably vicious; but leavened with divinity—when is it not?—it bears fragrant blossoms of mercy and gentleness and hero-worship. So Edith, indignant and furious over his foul murder, forgot all her old neighbor's shortcomings, and was perfectly sincere in the grief she shared with his desolate, weeping wife.

It was she who wrote to George Dupey, apprising him in the tenderest way of his father's death. The letter was forwarded with unusual expedition by the secret mail service, and in consequence one bitter cold night of that winter she was startled by a gentle tapping on her window-pane and a low call. Thinking it must be Captain Seddon, she joyfully raised the sash—to behold George. At first she did not recognize his haggard face, made more haggard still by the chill moonlight, and gave a little gasp of alarm.

"It is I, Edith—George," he said, hastening to reassure her. "I ought not to have frightened you, but I went home and Lige told me mother is still here. I wished so much to see her—and you."

"Of course you should have come. Go to the side door and I will let you in."

He had not been able to stay away, he said, after he received the dread word. He left camp as soon as permission was given him. With what purpose he had come home he hardly knew, for his stay was limited. He thought his mother would need him and he wished to see her. But Edith was included in the glance. He had made a phenomenally quick trip and now that it was over was amazed that it was

accomplished with safety. By all the eternal powers he swore to kill Silas Wire—if not now, whenever the day of reckoning was possible. He kept his mother and Edith up nearly all night, storming, raging, crying, walking the floor, and anathematizing every man who ever wore the blue. Against all soldiers of the United States service, militia or regulars, individually and collectively, he took a solemn vow of revenge.

His mother was apprehensive for his own safety, but he scorned her fear. His blood was too hot to care. Besides he had been cautious. He had avoided roads, only Lige had seen him at home, and of Lige's fidelity there was no doubt. If his presence were known all his purpose of vengeance would be defeated—that explained his prudence. Then he raved again. And Edith, pitying him with all her heart, did not wonder at his violence, but almost sympathized with it. His provocation was beyond mortal endurance.

The very next day, as ill luck would have it, a band of Federal infantry marched through the country. They passed within half a mile of Heart's Delight, neither seeing nor being seen. But late in the afternoon one solitary soldier who had been separated from his company at Jefferson and was hurrying on to rejoin it called at the house to beg a knapsack of food. He was a mere boy, not more than twenty, sick and weary to death. Something in his face appealed to Edith; she hardly knew why until she discovered that his curling yellow hair and blue eyes resembled Ned's. She had not thought of refusing what he asked. Refuse a hungry man food? The inhumanity of it would have reproached her ever after. But when she discovered the resemblance, any trace of enmity disappeared and she heaped favors upon him. She filled his knapsack with dainties, had Julie prepare him a cup of steaming coffee, and even pressed upon him a small package of the berries, already growing scarce as nuggets of gold. She asked him where he was from, and if he had a mother. Yes. He wished he could break away from war's frightful scenes and be with her once more. His eyes were wet, and so were the girl's. Ah, a woman's heart is beyond reckoning! Combinations are forever taking place that set at naught all preconceived analyses.

"You are kind; I thank you," he said simply as he turned to go.

She was standing at the window, gazing after him through a blur of tears, when she heard a step beside her and George Dupey was looking out of the window also. Her veins throbbed with quick pulsations. If he recognized the blue uniform what might not result? Forgotten was her sympathy for his revengeful grief; she attempted to divert his attention from the bare landscape and that one lone figure stalking across the fields.

But his keen eye had taken in the whole at a glance.

"Who is that?" he cried savagely, as though the ferocity of the dogs of war were concentrated in himself.

She could not conceal the truth. "It is a boy who has been separated from his command and is hastening to join it. It seemed to me that he looked like our dead boy." She waved her hand toward the graveyard and the tears again overflowed her eyes.

George did not reply, but his features worked convulsively and he strode toward the door. Edith intercepted him by a swift movement and stood facing him, her hand upon the knob.

"Where are you going? What would you do?" she asked.

"To begin my work. I have scoffed at providence; now I believe in it. It threw this man in my path."

"You shall not harm him! He has done you no wrong. He—"

"Every one of that accursed set has done me wrong. Was not my own father shot down like a dog? Edith, let me pass!"

"Never! Go fight this boy in open warfare. Murder him you shall not."

"Edith"—his voice was tense—"you may hold the door, but there is the window. It may be murder—I care not. I will kill him unless he is the better man."

"In God's name do not! I—"

She could not proceed, but caught his hands in hers and gazed into his eyes in mute entreaty.

His hate was stilled by the only passion stronger. With a touch of his father's exquisite gallantry he raised her hand to his lips and kissed it. Then before she could anticipate his action he drew her to him and placed her head on his shoulder.

"My darling," he whispered in love's tenderest accents, "if you were always at my side I should be a different man. I love you a thousand times better than ever I did in my life. Give me the answer you refused before and I will not leave you for anything else."

His words had a smack of honey to her ears. For close upon two years all her concern had been for others. Her life knew but one controlling motive: duty—sacrifice. She had strengthened all who needed her support without wearying. She was always the oak, never the vine. All leaned on her—she must trust herself. And in all those months, though attended with the truest love, it was the love of gratitude, of obligation. The condition presented to her by her lover's entreaty reversed everything. He would not only share her perplexities, but shoulder them. He loved her not for what she had done, but for what she was—because she was herself. Of a sudden she realized her burden's weight and would fain lay it down, like a tired child. Is it any wonder that her head rested where he placed it?

Her love for him did not enter her thought. He was brave, he was gallant, he was strong, he would be good, he worshiped her—that was all. She needed a refuge—here was one. And the boy trudging away with the tears falling down his cheeks would be safe. Is it any wonder that her head rested where he placed it?

All this ran through her mind in a twinkling. It would be sweet to yield. She had almost said yes.

He thought he had won. "Oh, my precious love!" he cried. "It seems too good to be true. Now I know what I came home for—to see you more than my mother. Look up, Edith, my love, my wife!" He bent and kissed her rapturously.

With a cry she broke from his arms. Her revulsion of feeling was indescribable. His wife! Never! How could she have endured the thought a second? His kiss was fatal to his hopes. It opened her eyes to her own heart. She did not love him. She did love—

"I see I was mistaken," he said bitterly. "It is too good to be true."

"Oh, George, forgive me!" she besought. "From my soul I wish I could promise, but I cannot."

"Then I cannot delay longer. My father's blood is crying to me from the ground. I am losing time. Good-by."

While yet she was sobbing over his disappointment and her own he slipped past her and was gone. Hastily darting in upon his mother he bade her farewell, then called to a servant to saddle his horse. He spent the interval in priming his arms and assuring himself of their preparation for service. His face was stern and his bosom adamant. As he hurried past the quarters to the stables, the darkies stared at him as at a wraith. All day he had kept himself out of sight and they did not know he was near.

Edith was in a frenzy. She walked the floor wringing her hands. One moment she reproached herself as culpable because she had not had diplomacy enough to temporize until the boy was out of danger; the next her conscience acquitted her of blame. She ran up stairs to a window which commanded a view of the surrounding hills. There was the young soldier ascending a ridge not more than eighty rods away. She had hoped he might have changed his course. Alas! alas! Down the steps she ran again and out upon the porch. The day was cold, but her blood was on fire and she felt no pang of its chill. She stood gazing in that unhallowed direction, locking and unlocking her hands in feverish dread. She tried to pray, but could not even think what she wished to say, and inarticulately murmured over and over again, "Mercy! mercy! oh, God, have mercy!" Until the actual deed was done she had hope of interruption.

Nearly a quarter of a mile from the house, on the way the Federal had taken, an abrupt dip of the ground and a shallow streamlet marked the boundary of Captain Seddon's property. Beyond lay a hill, steep at the bottom but rounding toward the top with a gentle slope. The upper window commanded a view of the whole, but from the gallery Edith could only see the crest. George and the young soldier were both hidden from view, but she knew that one was spurring his horse across the low ground and the other still toiling upward.

Promised interruption came from a source she had not anticipated. While she was on one side of the house a squad of Wire's ubiquitous militia approached on the other. One of the Dupey darkies who lacked Lige's fidelity had seen George arrive, contrary to the latter's supposition, and had reported to the post. In consequence here was a detachment for his arrest. For the time all Edith's senses seemed to have passed into sight. Before she knew the men were near a horse and its rider stood within arm's reach. For once the sight of soldiers did not alarm her; there was no room left in her mind for fear.

Wire himself was not with the party, but the leader was little behind him in brutality. "We want George Dupey," he said. "Bid him come out."

"He is not here," she answered.

If only he were! Death a thousand times before his present business!

"It is a damned lie!" the man began to say, when one of his subordinates caught him by the sleeve.

"Look!"

Edith also saw. George was just emerging above the intervening obstructions and the blue-coated soldier had gained the top of the hill.

"By Jeroos'lem! that furthest fellow looks like he might have on our uniform. Who is the other?"

One of the men had known George all his life. "The bird we are after," he said.

With an ear-splitting shout the men started in pursuit. Both the others heard it and looked back to discover the cause. Until that moment the foremost had not known he was in danger, and now he turned irresolutely from right to left and left to right in natural indecision. George was without uniform, but his manner was unmistakable.

"Go on! Oh, don't stop! don't stop!" cried Edith, well-nigh beside herself. She urged him on as though he could hear.

She was not alone on the porch now. Mrs. Dupey and Nell and the house servants had clustered about her, none of them perfectly informed of the situation but all roused to the highest excitement. The mother thought only of her son.

The question in Edith's mind was whether George, in terror for his own life, would not abandon his murderous purpose to save himself. If he would! Her life seemed to her to hang on that thread.

Evidently he had no such intention. When the shout reached him he quickened his horse's speed, riding straight ahead. He was already in range of his victim, but he was waiting till he had overcome the protection of the hill's summit and could take absolutely sure aim.

The young soldier after that instant's hesitation did not falter, but took to his heels with a deer's swiftness. But what did it avail against the sharp ring of the horse's hoofs on the frozen ground, in as relentless pursuit as destiny, only faster? Every moment shortened the distance; with each backward glance the gain seemed incredible.

To the watchers on the porch the seconds were hours. The militia were lost to view in the low ground skirting the ridge. George was on top of the hill, the soldier only a few hundred yards in advance; he looked back once more—hope of escape in this way there was none. One course was left. He drew his revolver from his belt and aimed upon his pursuer, who did not check his pace, but made ready his own weapon. It was a question of calm nerve and perfect aim. Mrs. Dupey, gradually comprehending the tragic scene, understanding though she could not see all, screamed aloud. Edith was turned to stone. The servants, awed by her white face, repressed their talk.

The militia came in plain sight, galloping up the ascent. Too late! A whiff of smoke—George rode on. Before the report from this reached them, another whiff, and the boy in blue fell, never, never more to rise!

Suspense as to George's fate braced Edith a moment longer.

The militia were sufficiently near the brow of the hill to witness the deed. Their spurs sank deep into their horses' flanks, and simultaneously their curses and pistol-shots filled the air. George halted a moment, emptied the chambers of his revolver into their midst, then waving it defiantly above his head turned his horse to a woods near by, leaped the fence, and was quickly lost to their sight.

(To be continued.)

TELEGRAPHING WITHOUT WIRES.

BY ERNESTO MANCINI.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

THE scientific discovery now uppermost in the public mind is that of telegraphy without wires. The appliances hitherto in use have been so perfect as to enable us to send several telegrams at the same time over a single wire with giddy rapidity. Moreover the various parts composing the telegraphic network of the globe can be so quickly joined one with another as to reduce every loss of time to a minimum. Thus a telegram to-day makes a circuit of the world in fifty-five minutes; and not long ago, on the occasion of the boat-race between Oxford and Cambridge, a telegram carried the news of the victory to Valparaiso in fifty-five seconds.

Despite all this perfection attained by the modern telegraph, there were some who thought another step should be taken in order to liberate it from its subjection to that wire of communication without which all electrical transmission was impossible. For it is well known how often immense difficulties are met with, not only in placing in position these wires of communication, but also in keeping them in good condition, protecting them from easy injury, or in repairing them when such injury has been done.

In all the researches and experiments made, one idea constantly prevailed; namely, that the discovery of practical telegraphy without wires must be reached by means of electricity. And it was surmised that the phenomenon which should serve as a basis was to be either that of electric induction between two isolated circuits or that of the propagation of secondary currents in the earth and in the water when the extremes of the circuit in which the primary current passes are in communication with the earth or with the water. Before the middle of the present century it was known that electrodynamic induction may manifest itself at a considerable distance through obstacles; as early as 1842, in fact, Henry observed that the discharge of a Leyden jar placed in the garret of the house where he was caused some sparks to fly off from a circuit placed in the cellar of the same house.

In 1884 the extension of the telegraph and telephone lines made evident the intensity of the electromagnetic perturbations; at London these showed themselves to be intense between the telegraph and telephone circuits, although between these there was a distance of over thirty yards, the one being placed in the ground and the other on the roofs of the houses. And even between two telegraph lines ten miles apart these effects of induction showed themselves.

In exactly the same year, 1884, Mr. Preece began to give attention to electrodynamic induction as a means of telegraphic communication without wires, so that in 1886 this transmission was practically obtained in the great post-office building in London between a circuit placed in

the basement and one in the highest part of the building. The signals were effected by means of a system which Mr. Preece always used in his own researches. This consisted in producing passages and interruptions of the current in one circuit, which in their turn provoke in the distant circuit other passages and interruptions, made perceptible by the sounds of a telephone interposed in the second line.

The new system, as we shall see, made rapid progress through the labors of Mr. Preece and was capable of practical application. But it is only justice to remark that the principle of telegraphy by induction had been described in 1880 by Professor Trowbridge, of Harvard University. Between the Boston observatory and the city of Cambridge there ran a wire for the purpose of transmitting the time of day. In this wire the electric circuit was interrupted every second by a clock. Professor Trowbridge discovered that by joining a telephone to a wire one hundred and fifty yards long, running parallel with the first circuit and having one end in the earth, the ticking of the clock was distinctly heard at a distance of more than a mile. The professor immediately published his observations, asserting the possibility of transmitting telegrams without wires, and, giving free flight to his fancy, the experimenter claimed that, by means of a powerful current and a long cable stretched between Nova Scotia and Florida, some day men might succeed in receiving on the coast of France, in a secondary circuit, the signals sent across the Atlantic.

To Mr. Preece belongs the honor of having realized these hopes in a modest degree by means of a system which may be described as follows: Two broad surfaces, good conductors of electricity, are immersed in the soil or in the water, and joined by a wire in which are inserted a voltaic pile and a key, while at a distance another wire is arranged in the same way except that it has a telephone intercalated. When the current is made to pass in the first wire the circuit is closed between the two surfaces by means of currents which pass through the earth, diffusing themselves over a great distance; and if the distance be not too great the currents encounter the other two surfaces, or electrodes, thus originating a derivative current in the second circuit, which causes the receiving apparatus to function. As receiver, a galvanometer may be used, being an instrument sufficiently sensitive to very weak currents, but demanding a position of perfect immobility. As this last condition is lacking on board a ship, for example, a simple and practical receiver in the form of a telephone may be employed, from which a practical operator can receive by ear the telegrams as they are sent.

To test water as a medium for transmitting the current, Messrs. W. and E. Rathenau made some experiments on Lake Wann, near Potsdam. Two electrodes made of broad metallic surfaces were immersed in the water at a distance of five hundred meters from each other, and were joined by a wire in which passed the current of five hundred accumulators placed on the shore. Every interruption of the current was perfectly perceptible in a telephone intercalated in another wire stretched at a distance of three miles from the first, supported by two boats, and having the extremities similarly immersed in the water of the lake. The presence of some little islands between the shore and the boats did not produce any effect on the transmissions. During these experiments the attempt was also made to convert the audible signals into optical ones, and to register these by means of photography. Again in Germany experiments of this kind have recently been made with two lines arranged parallel to each other and with electrodes made of iron poles or of coils of iron wire, buried deeply in the earth; the result has been a successful sending of signals to a distance of about eleven miles.

Matters were standing at this point, and already bright prophecies were being made for the new system, when all of a sudden an ingenious invention has come to show how these things can be done much more simply, and with results by far more certain and practical. The discovery is due to

William Marconi, of Bologna, a youth of little more than twenty years, who, without concerning himself about the way followed by Preece and his imitators, decided to resort to the electrical undulations discovered by Hertz, and to make use of the properties possessed by these undulations for the sending of signals to a distance.

It is known that forty years ago Maxwell demonstrated that an electric discharge, or a spark, which flies off between two bodies of a given form and size instead of being composed of a single discharge is made up of a number of discharges which succeed one another with immense rapidity between the two conductors, and from such vibrations of the discharge we derive the method of calculating their duration. The appliances intended to produce these discharges were called oscillators; and first by the labors of Hertz, then by those of other physicists, in particular of Professor Righi, of the University of Bologna, some of these were successfully constructed in which the discharges are produced by hundreds of millions per second. In general the oscillators are made of two metallic spheres near to each other and immersed in a liquid, as oil of vaseline for example, and receive the discharge from a Ruhmkorff coil.

The very rapid oscillations of the discharge between the spheres give rise to a series of waves which are propagated into space with a velocity of about two hundred thousand miles per second. Their propagation is effected by means of the cosmic ether, that body which we suppose fills everything, and the existence of which, in spite of its hypothetical nature, everything demonstrates. Hertz, by a series of beautiful experiments, proved that these undulations present all the phenomena characteristic of those of light; that is, reflection, refraction, etc., according as they fall on bodies that are transparent for the undulations themselves, that is, bad conductors, or upon opaque bodies, that is, good conductors.

The oscillating discharge possesses another property: embodied in a straight wire, with a small quantity of electricity, it is able to provoke, by means of the undulations which break forth from the wire, other currents in a wire remote from the first, placed at a distance far greater than that at which the phenomenon of induction is obtained.

It was during his frequent visits to the laboratory of Professor Righi, and his observation of the beautiful and complete experiments there made, that Marconi must have thought of the possibility of applying the oscillating discharges and their effects to the transmission of signals to a distance. Having made some preliminary experiments in a place of his own in Bologna, Marconi was convinced of the possibility of it, and by assiduous labor sought to construct appliances capable of sending the undulations and of receiving them again under the form of graphic signals. Having prepared his apparatus, Marconi, who is the son of an English mother, repaired to England, where he found in Preece a sincere admirer of his discovery, who furnished for him the means of trying various experiments. The good results of these soon made a great sensation.

The success obtained by Marconi with his apparatus induced the Hon. Signor Brin to invite at once the young inventor to come to Rome and pursue some experiments which might be of great importance for the marine. And these experiments were many times repeated in the palace of the minister of the navy, exciting interest and wonder, not only from the fact that the invention appeared stripped of that vagueness and mystery which had surrounded the reports of the discovery in England, but also because no part of the apparatus was kept concealed.

The telegraphic apparatus of Marconi is composed of two non-reversible parts, the transmitter and the receiver. The first is made of a Ruhmkorff coil, the discharge of which is produced between the two spheres of Righi's oscillator. In communication with the oscillator is a wire fixed on a long vertical wooden pole. From this wire, an ordinary conductor, Marconi obtains the electrical undulations which spread in every direction in quantity directly proportional

to the length of the wire, traversing conductors and overcoming non-conductors by means of the phenomena of diffusion and reflection analogous to those by which light may indirectly illuminate an atmosphere. Marconi thinks he can prove that the distance reached by the electrical undulations increases in direct proportion to the square of the height of the transmitting wire fixed on the vertical pole.

For the receiving apparatus he takes advantage of a property possessed by the Lodge tube. This tube is of glass and filled with metallic powder, with which are connected the ends of two wires entering the tube at its two extremities. The powder, because of the oxidation of the particles which compose it, is the worst possible conductor of electricity; but no sooner is it struck by the electric wave than the particles adhere together, removing thus every obstacle to the passage of the current, if the tube is intercalated in a circuit. If, then, by a slight shake the cohesion of the powder is broken, this is no longer a conductor and the current is broken.

Marconi has modified Lodge's coherer, making it much more sensitive. Within the little tube of glass the wires communicate instead with two little silver cylinders about four hundredths of an inch apart, and between them is inserted a powder composed of ninety-six parts of nickel and four parts of silver. In the tube a vacuum is made down to the pressure of one tenth of a millimeter, and before closing the tube at the lamp some vapors of mercury are allowed to penetrate it. This tube *sees* the electric waves just as our eye does the waves of light.

The receiving apparatus has, then, one of these tubes, one end of which is in communication with the end of another vertical wire fixed to a pole, similarly to the arrangement of the transmitter, and the length of which must oscillate within fixed limits in order that the receiver may function well. The other electrode of the coherer may be in communication with the soil, or have, as in the experiments made at Rome, a long metallic ribbon by which the electricity coming from the wire to the tube is scattered. But the coherer is also a part of another circuit which contains a pile and an electromagnet.

When the wave strikes the little tube, making it a conductor, the circuit in which the pile is found is closed, and then the electromagnet acts and, by drawing a small lever, closes a second circuit, in which is placed a battery of dry piles, a Morse apparatus, and another electromagnet, which causes the coherer to be struck by a little hammer, suspending its conductivity.

It is not difficult to comprehend, even without diagrams, how the apparatus functions. If the electric wave comes from a distant transmitter and strikes the little tube, the current passes, the electromagnet closes the second circuit, and the little Morse wheel begins to mark the strips of paper; but immediately the little hammer strikes upon the coherer and everything returns to rest, leaving a point traced on the paper. It would therefore seem possible to transmit only signals in the form of dots; but if many dots are made to follow one another rapidly, the Morse machine does not succeed in giving them distinctly, and so ends by marking a line. Thus is obtained the conventional alphabet.

The principle is very simple, and the inventor has managed to give to his ingenious apparatus a great sensitiveness by eliminating with subtle artifice—that is, by placing about at convenient points little receiving apparatuses—all the reciprocal influences of the various parts of his invention which might greatly diminish its sensitiveness. In the palace of the minister of the navy the telegrams were transmitted through two stories of the building, and it was wonderful to see the Morse apparatus writing of itself, while the force that put it in motion came in mysterious, invisible, silent waves, passing through the walls as a ray of light passes through limpid glass.

It has been very justly said that Marconi's invention reminds us of Morse's. Thus in Morse's day the pile and the electromagnet were already known, but it is not to be denied that the modern telegraph

came from Morse's invention. Marconi's discovery dates, we may say, from yesterday. It will, of course, receive further perfections in the course of future experiments. However, there is no prospect of an immediate revolution in modern telegraphy, as some think. The present system still has a long life before it. But it may receive from the wireless method a great and useful aid, while it is not improbable that also in the field of science the new experiments may lead to a more complete study of the nature of Hertz's waves. It is certain, too, that in communications between one ship and another, or between ships and the land, Marconi's system must be of excellent service; the more so that the state of the atmosphere does not show any influence on the transmission of signals. The future will tell us to what limits of distance these signals may reach. The rapid and splendid conquests of science have accustomed us to the brightest hopes and boldest hypotheses, and only future experiments can tell us whether it may be possible to compel signals to follow a single direction, and if these can be isolated from the influence of other electrical movements that disturb them.

JUSTIN S. MORRILL, THE OLDEST UNITED STATES SENATOR.

BY E. J. EDWARDS.

WHEN the last leaves of the autumn of 1865 were falling, Solomon Foot in a voice made almost inaudible by grief announced to the federal Senate the death of his colleague, Jacob Collamer; and when the first hints of the spring succeeding were noticed Charles Sumner with brief but impressive words told the Senate that Mr. Foot had just followed Mr. Collamer "across the narrow line." Thus within five months Vermont and the nation lost two senators who were statesmen preeminent. The little state had by their abilities gained influence in public affairs overmatched by that of no other commonwealth.

Public opinion in Washington and in Vermont quickly identified the man deemed worthy to succeed Senator Collamer, and yet with the election of this man the gap in the Senate would be only partly filled. "Can Vermont match both these distinguished sons?" senators asked. The question was not unanswered long. The indicated successor of Collamer was Justin S. Morrill, who was then serving out his sixth term in the House of Representatives. There he had gained one of the chief triumphs of statesmanship, for his name was permanently associated with a measure that marked an era in the history of the government. It was a measure of which Mr. Blaine once wrote that it "effected a change

JUSTIN S. MORRILL.

equivalent to a revolution in the financial and economic system of government"—the Morrill tariff. It was, however, deemed a public disadvantage immediately to transfer Mr. Morrill from the House, where he had special responsibilities at that time, to the Senate, hence the vacancy created by Senator Collamer's death was temporarily filled by the appointment of Luke P. Poland.

Before it was possible for the legislature to elect Mr. Morrill senator, the death of Senator Foot entailed the governor's appointment of his successor. The executive sent to the Senate one of Vermont's young men, younger by twenty years, the reports declared, than Mr. Morrill was. But when the senators saw this new associate go down the aisle to take the oath they wondered if error was not in that report. Time had given him physical precocity if he was only thirty-seven. There was maturity in his hair and beard and his shoulders seemed rounded with the weight of more than thirty-seven years. The report was true, however, and before a year had passed the Senate learned that this young senator, George F. Edmunds, was as mature in character and precocious in intellectual development as in physical characteristics. Thus it happened that even before Mr. Morrill took his seat in the Senate it had been demonstrated that Vermont could match the two great senators who had so long served her and the nation. For twenty-four years Edmunds and Morrill were colleagues. The relation was voluntarily broken when Mr. Edmunds resigned his seat, after twenty-five years of service.

The choice of these senators by Vermont and the repeated choice of them as their own successors tore to tatters all the traditions of the essential means to gain political honors and preeminence in the Senate. Their careers confounded those ambitious men who studied and analyzed other careers that they might find the mystic charm that brought honor and power.

Dissimilar in many tastes and intellectual gifts, unlike in personality and temperament, nevertheless Mr. Edmunds and Mr. Morrill admirably complemented and supplemented each other. It has been thought by senators of long experience that together they furnished the ideal example of what the representation of a state in the Senate should be. Mr. Morrill has been spoken of as the exception that proves the truth of Mr. Blaine's familiar rule that a career in Congress, to be of great influence and national consequence, is possible only for him who begins service there before he is forty. Mr. Morrill was well past forty when he entered the House and half-way between fifty and sixty when he was elected senator. He brought the fame of an era-making national measure to the Senate and his mental impress was as great, although not as conspicuous, upon all the financial and economic measures adopted by his party in the Senate as it was upon the Morrill tariff. How far along in life he was when he began his career in the Senate may perhaps be well suggested by comparison. Douglas split the Democratic party and marshaled one wing of it when he was only four years older than the age at which Mr. Morrill entered the House. Blaine was speaker of the House when he was four years younger than Morrill was at the time he first took the oath there. Garfield had made his career in that body and been chosen to the Senate when only four years older than Morrill was when he began public life, and McKinley, who matched Morrill's achievement by naming a great protection measure, had long served in the House, been chosen governor twice, and inaugurated as president before he reached the age at which Morrill became senator.

These examples culled from many must suggest one of the unusual, almost unprecedented characteristics of Mr. Morrill's career. That he should to-day, at almost Gladstone's age, be found in his seat in the Senate is of course a distinction—one that is perhaps unparalleled in American public life excepting by John Quincy Adams. It ranks Mr. Morrill in venerable public service with Thiers, Palmerston, Brougham, and Gladstone. But it is after all a marvel of mental and physical health, not a triumph of intellect in gaining and maintaining influences of vast consequence to the nation.

Mr. Morrill went to the House trained for public service only by experience as a merchant. Busy men of commerce and trade have gone there and to the Senate and been of good service, but none was like Mr. Morrill. The politics of the caucus and of the districts did not send him there. Like Edmunds, he knew no politics in the narrower meaning of the word. When the Vermont legislature named him as the successor of Collamer, not a pledge was given nor a promise made. The higher politics which is the servant of spontaneous public opinion made him senator, and no man could say, "I did it."

His distinctive personal characteristic, a certain charm of gentle grace and simple dignity, was even more conspicuous in 1853 than in 1897. The mellowing impress of gathering years has only touched the senator's person. The unaffected serenity, the placid temper, the atmosphere of cultivation and true refinement which distinguishes Senator Morrill in his venerable days were his personal characteristics when in Fillmore's administration he began public life. They may have been even more conspicuous then. He took his place in the House when men were hot because of the Fugitive Slave Law, and when the Kansas-Nebraska Bill was blazing the path for the coming of the Republican party. New England was taunted by some passionate men with being dominated by the commercial, dollar-loving impulse, which, as they said, tainted with a vulgar atmosphere her politics and her public men. And when these things were said Morrill furnished the swift refutation.

He had come from a rural counting-room, but he had the grace of those who are bred in refinement, the quiet charm of the scholar, and those who did not know what his vocation had been judged, when they saw him in that turbulent body, that he was one of those whose life is spent with books and who stray from the library or a life of leisure to the excitements of public place.

Morrill quickly made it clear that grace does not involve lack of strength, nor cultivation a dreamy or effeminate nature. For men he always had the kindest consideration. He had Seward's patience and forbearance without his condescension or patronizing way. But for measures he could plead with the obstinate persistence of Thaddeus Stevens or could denounce with the vigor of Thurman. His speeches are full of sentences that have the charm of literature applied to economic questions, and they contain blunt Anglo-Saxon condemnation for measures that he thought faulty. Wendell Phillips could not have better worded the terse epigrams with which Morrill condemned the legal tender of the Bill of 1862. There is the Phillips' ring in these words describing the legal tender feature: "It is not blessed by one sound precedent, but damned by all." Or this in answer to those who justified the bill as a war measure: "It is not waged against the enemy, but might well make him grin with delight." Or again: "Chinese wooden guns for the army might as well be provided as paper money alone for the treasury."

Again, Morrill's speech in opposition to the Bland Silver Dollar Bill, beginning with the assertion, "The measure is a fearful assault upon public credit," was a fine illustration of the ability of one who is considerate and courteous in all personal relations to marshal the resources of scorn, sarcasm, and invective against faulty or dangerous public measures. But in all Mr. Morrill's speeches the prevailing characteristic was that of the essayist who knows how to write with force and elegance rather than the orator who speaks for the moment.

It was with financial problems, questions affecting revenues and the currency, that Mr. Morrill was early identified and has been chiefly associated from his first term throughout a public service that lacks six years of half a century's length, and in these venerable years there must be some sense of vindicated judgment, some gratification at the recognition of his statesmanship, and in the fact that conventions are held, commissions appointed, and national issues of presidential years created to carry out in these later days almost every measure he urged with respect to the money of the government, gold, silver, or paper.

Mr. Morrill always disclaims any exclusive merit for the measure with which his name will become historic among American statesmen. Yet his services in preparing the bill and in urging and expounding the protective features of it, which were of such mighty consequence to the American people, wholly justified the selection of him to report the bill and champion it in the House. None but himself of the Ways and Means Committee ever disparaged his influential relation to that measure, which, as has been said by one of the greatest of Americans, gave "industrial and financial strength to the Union in the hour of its dire necessity, in the very crisis of its fate."

Mr. Morrill's career has been in another respect unusual if not wholly singular. He gained influence that is reflected in almost every line of the financial or economic legislation of his time, an influence which of itself was great enough to prevent the San Domingo annexation project from being consummated; and yet he has never ranked with the orators of his generation. Like Edmunds, he had not the rhetorician's distinction. Not that he and his colleague were silent statesmen. A capacity to expound and convince is essential to success in establishing legislative measures. The Vermont senators often addressed the Senate, Edmunds in quiet, conversational tones, without emotion or any impressive accent. His spoken words did not appeal to the galleries, although the Senate always listened with attention to him. If he did not empty the seats on the floor of the Senate he never filled the gallery benches, for he never spoke for the galleries. Morrill's way was wholly unlike that of his colleague. He prepared his more important addresses as the essayist does. They were polished for literary charm. They were of the kind that appeal best through type, and that is doubtless one reason why he preferred to read his more important preparations. He was not dumb in debate. He could and often did speak without notes, but when he called upon his highest resources he committed his thoughts to paper.

That habit necessarily placed Mr. Morrill in another rank than that of the orators of Congress. He did not practice the tricks of rhetoric. He never was suspected of memorizing a speech and, actor-like, studying his gestures before a mirror, as one of his earlier associates was believed to do. And yet, even when reading an address, there was always that characteristic of grace, elegance, cultivation which caused these recitations to be free from the fatal dulness that usually attends the reading of essays in the Senate. His voice was musical, clear, and never monotonous. He held his manuscript in his hand, never permitting himself to suggest the sermonizer by reading from an improvised pulpit, as others in the Senate had done.

Upon one occasion a few years ago, when a subject in which the people were taking unusual interest was before the Senate, Mr. Morrill announced that he would upon the following day address the Senate upon the proposed measure. Such notification from a senator known to read his speeches served almost invariably to give the senators an informal recess in the cloak-room and to leave the gallery free to the unwary tourist. Mr. Morrill, however, found few empty senatorial seats and he saw that the galleries were well filled. The senators stayed and the visitors came to listen, not to oratory, but to an essay. The compliment clearly was pleasing to Morrill, for as he rose with his manuscript in his hand he bowed almost imperceptibly, yet in graceful acknowledgment, to his associates, and then he spoke an informal sentence or two with his face half turned toward the rear gallery. It was plain that he was thus testing his voice and that it had occurred to him that if these visitors had come to hear him speak it should not be his fault if they failed to hear him. Then he turned to his manuscript and began: "Mr. President, when a thing is worth doing at all it is worth doing gracefully," and in the spirit of that quality the address was written and in its manner delivered, so that it seemed for the moment that not in the Senate chamber but in some peaceful audience-room a con-

genial company had come together to listen to something that was far remote from the intense world of statesmanship and politics. Yet this address was as earnest and persuasive as any Morrill ever made, and was afterward declared by one senator to have been "rocklike in its logic."

Mr. Morrill's enduring fame will rest upon the measure, tremendous in its national influence, which is identified by his name. His contemporary fame with politicians is based upon political successes covering nearly fifty years which are due to none of the arts of the party manager; with statesmen that he should have accomplished so much that is of vast influence without ever having made a rhetorical speech; with the Pharisees that he, a simple merchant, should have the characteristics of the kindly gentleman and the atmosphere of true cultivation; and with all who know or ever saw him that he should have maintained during nearly fifty years of public life the simplicity which is an ingredient of a noble character and that a charm of native grace should never have been veneered by contact with the ambitions and passions that play the great part in Washington.

It has been said that the Senate of to-day is not the Senate of the older day; that the intensity and the materialistic spirit of the time characterizes that body now, and that Mr. Morrill remains the solitary type of the dignified and serene Senate of an earlier time. But it has seemed to some that another is the better view: that the venerable senator is not to be esteemed so much a type of the past as a suggestion of what the American gentleman and public servant may be in that future day when our form of government and our development as a nation are characterized less by the newness of its first century and more by the maturity of later generations.

"LOHENGRIN."

BY CHARLES BARNARD.

IN every language there are certain poems that seem specially adapted to music. There are the lyric poems, and composers select such poems for musical setting because their forms are rhythmical and their words melodious. There are other poems and poetic stories that seem best adapted to recital or representation. These are the dramatic poems. It seems to have been a very early custom to recite the dramatic stories to the accompaniment of music. This is quite different from the setting of lyrics to music. Then it was found that both could be united, and out of the union of poetry, drama, music, and story came the modern opera.

The word opera may be said to mean literally "the work," and it is regarded by critics as the highest form of musical expression. The performance of a grand opera means the employment of many arts and it is itself the highest form of art we have. The opera took its present form in the latter part of the sixteenth century. It originated in Italy, and one style of opera is still called "the Italian opera." From the first the music appears to have been regarded as the chief thing, and in all the earlier examples of opera and in many of the best known modern Italian operas the poem or story is of secondary importance. The chief aim of the composer was to provide a melodious musical setting to the words by means of recitatives, arias, duets, etc. The dramatic interest in the story was often sacrificed to the musical effect. The dramatic progress of the story would in many instances come to a complete stop while a grand aria held the audience spellbound. The poems or books were adapted from novels and plays, and were sometimes original stories. Many were strong and powerful dramas that gave fine opportunities for the composer to employ his talents upon the lyrics or to work up effective and sonorous choruses at the climax of the dramatic

interest. Every variety of story has been used as themes for operas, from tragedy to the lightest comedy and farce.

Of late years, particularly in Germany, increased attention has been given to the themes of operas. More attention has been given to the words, more consistent and more dramatic stories have been used, and the words and music have been brought into closer relationship. In the operas of Wagner, and in the works of some of those who have followed him, words and music are of equal importance. The music is less decorative and more dramatic and the words are never sacrificed to the music. This advanced form of opera has been aptly called the music-drama.

In looking over the great mass of the operas that have been produced within the past hundred years we find many that have stories of real dramatic and poetic interest quite apart from the music to which they are wedded. Examples may be seen in "Lucia," founded on one of Scott's novels, "Carmen," adapted from Prosper Merimée's romance, "Faust," adapted from Goethe's tragedy, and many others. In "Lohengrin" we have a legendary story made into a music-drama that in part illustrates Wagner's theories in regard to the real objects sought in the production of his music-dramas. Of these theories much has been written by Wagner and his followers. The chief point is that the opera should be a consistent, dramatic whole, music and words being of equal value. This becomes clear when we come to examine the work itself.

Before the production of "Lohengrin" the story was practically unknown. When we see or read it we recognize the fact that its author drew his materials from the myth of the Holy Grail, the legend of King Arthur, and the German legend of the Swanboat. The story is picturesque, legendary, and dramatic. It is a tragic love story and is based upon the superstitions and beliefs of the people of Germany in the tenth century. Christianity had invaded the country, but the belief in the gods still survived and there was a general belief in magic arts and in the power of miracles. The ordeal of battle was believed to be directly guided by Heaven and therefore a very convenient method of getting at the opinion of Heaven in regard to any matter in dispute.

The prelude to "Lohengrin" begins with high, soft chords on the violins and the music slowly descends till it mingles with the beautiful swan-song. The composer's aim is to symbolize in music the descent of the Holy Grail from heaven and to hint at the approach of the Knight of the Swan. This is the key to the music of "Lohengrin" —to suggest, to typify, and to symbolize the theme and the characters of the story.

When the story begins the counts and nobles of Brabant have assembled with their people at Antwerp to meet Henry, king of Germany. Among the nobles is Frederick of Telramund and his wife Ortrud. King Henry tells the assembled nobles that he has called them together to take council against the invasions of the Hungarians. He finds there is great disorder in Brabant and he appeals to Frederick to explain the cause of so much civil strife and confusion. Frederick says, with a great show of virtue, that at the death of the late duke he was appointed guardian of the duke's daughter Elsa and her young brother Gottfried. The boy and the girl had gone one day into the forest together and Elsa had returned alone, saying that the boy was lost. He had at one time hoped to marry his ward Elsa, but she had repulsed him and he had then married Ortrud. He now believed Elsa had murdered her brother. Frederick admitted that he would benefit by the boy's death and claimed that, the boy being dead, he was the rightful heir and successor of the duke.

The people receive this accusation of Elsa with dismay and unbelief, and the king says he will at once sit in judgment upon the matter. The king's herald calls Elsa and she approaches this improvised court. Her eyes are cast down and the people look on her with surprise and pity. The king tells her of the dreadful charge made against her. She is mute, except to mourn for her lost brother. He cannot understand her refusal to speak and calls upon her to

ELSA AND LOHENGRIN.

defend herself. Her only reply is the recital of a dream in which she saw a knight in shining armor who came to her defense. The people are greatly moved by the scene and the king decides that the matter must be settled by ordeal of battle. Frederick dares any one among the men present to fight for her honor. Who wins in such a battle is clearly the favorite of Heaven and thus Heaven's will may be known by the result of the battle. All the men present decline the honor of defending Elsa's cause. The herald calls upon any of the men present to come forward to the trial, but all refuse. It is clear Elsa is guilty. Heaven has deserted her. Elsa's only hope is in prayer to heaven for aid.

Suddenly there is a murmur among the people on the outskirts of the throng. A marvel! A wonder! A knight in armor is approaching upon the river, in a boat drawn by a white swan! To their amazement the swan draws the boat to the shore. The people receive the stranger with reverence, as they believe he has come in answer to Elsa's prayer. Frederick and Ortrud are amazed and secretly alarmed. Elsa stands spellbound at the sight of the knight of her dreams.

It is Lohengrin, the son of Parcifal and a knight of the Holy Grail, though he does not say so. He thanks his swan and bids him return. He then pays his respects to the king, and the king and people welcome him as one evidently sent from heaven. Lohengrin asks Elsa for the honor of being her champion, and she accepts his service and promises herself and the dukedom as his reward. He then tells her she must promise never to ask his name, his home, or whence he came. She eagerly promises to obey and he leads her to the king and places her in his care while he prepares for the ordeal of battle. With great ceremony the ring is formed and the two knights prepare to fight. The men warn Frederick against the fight with such a powerful stranger, but he persists in his accusation against Elsa and declares Heaven will uphold the truth. The battle is short and Frederick is disarmed. Elsa is clearly innocent and she joyfully accepts Lohengrin

MADAME NORDICA AS ELSA.

as her promised husband and the people welcome him as a messenger bearing the very will of Heaven.

Round this interesting and dramatic story is woven a continuous stream of the most suggestive and beautiful music. There is no formal sequence of recitative, aria, duet, and quartet, as in the Italian operas. There are no lyrics, nor are the words arranged in set verses that can be repeated to the same music. The music is seldom repeated. It changes with every line of the words. It is the mirror of the story, flowing on without pause beside every scene of the swiftly moving tale. There are no formal arias or duets and yet there are beautiful strains that often flow together into melodic dialogues. There is no accompaniment in the conventional sense. The orchestra is a musical commentary upon the story. It is constantly changing in time, in key, in harmony, rhythm, and tonal color to enhance and illumine the meaning of the words. The music seems also to clothe the characters of the play with special musical attributes. Certain melodies are associated with each character, and these melodies, while infinitely varied, always appear in connection with each character, and form, as it were, a melodic vesture or crown whereby each character may be recognized.

In the next act Frederick and Ortrud, crushed by his defeat, sit at night upon the steps of the minster, bewailing their unhappy lot. Ortrud, gazing upon the brightly lighted windows of the palace where Lohengrin is staying, declares that Lohengrin's victory was won by sorcery. She declares that he dare not give his name or dwelling-place, as that would break the magic spell whereby he won his victory. She urges Frederick to entice Elsa to ask Lohengrin his name. This would break the spell and they would be revenged.

The door of the balcony of Elsa's house is opened and Elsa comes out to look upon the night. She sings of her happiness, and Ortrud, mad with rage and jealousy, resolves to ruin her, and, sending Frederick away, appeals to Elsa for aid and sympathy. Elsa, thinking no evil, says she will come down. Ortrud then calls upon the ancient gods to aid her in her scheme of revenge. Elsa comes forth to meet Ortrud and says she will appeal to the king to restore her and her husband to public favor. Ortrud, while pretending friendship, begins to poison her mind against Lohengrin. Elsa, still thinking no evil, offers her sympathy and then returns to the house.

Morning soon dawns and the king's heralds summon the people to hear the

king's commands. Frederick is to be punished for his false accusation against Elsa and Lohengrin is to be the successor of the duke and to lead the army in the war against the Hungarians. Frederick mingles among the people and declares he will unmask their hero, but they do not listen to him, as the wedding procession is approaching the minster. Elsa with her maids comes to meet the bridegroom. Just as she reaches the steps of the church Ortrud appears and insists that, as she outranks Elsa, she must enter the church first. Elsa, though frightened by Ortrud's sudden appearance, insists upon her own rights and that Ortrud has no rights now that her husband has been disgraced. Ortrud retorts that Elsa is about to wed a knight she dare not name. Elsa at first is overwhelmed with surprise and indignation and then maintains the honor of her knight and refuses to listen longer to slanders against him. The people take Elsa's side and bid Ortrud hold her peace, but she cries out that Lohengrin won the fight by magic arts and declares that Elsa dare not give his name.

MAX ALVARY AS LOHENGRIN.

The king and Lohengrin enter from the palace with their train, but are stopped by the confusion about the entrance of the minster. The king asks what the strife means and Elsa appeals to Lohengrin for protection, saying that in befriending Ortrud she meant no harm. Frederick appears and in a stormy scene declares Lohengrin used magic arts in the battle and dares him to give his name and station. Lohengrin replies that no one has the right to question him save Elsa. Frederick manages to reach Elsa and tells her that should Lohengrin be wounded ever so slightly his magic power would be lost, and urges her to admit him to the house that night to wound Lohengrin and save her from his magic art. Lohengrin drives Frederick away from Elsa and demands that if Elsa doubt him she declare her doubts at once. She insists that love rises over all doubts. The wedding procession is reunited and they all proceed to the minster, yet at the very door Elsa sees Ortrud lifting a warning and threatening hand against her.

The story now rapidly approaches its tragic end. Elsa and Lohengrin are escorted with wedding songs to their bridal chamber. They are left alone and for a while are peacefully happy. Elsa then begins to question him about his name and home. He begs her to trust his love alone. She persists in doubting his love because he will not reveal his name. Suddenly Frederick and some of his friends break into the room. Lohengrin defends himself and Frederick is killed at Elsa's feet. The frightened attendants take the body of Frederick away, and Lohengrin, calling Elsa's maids, bids them take her to the king, telling her that on the morrow he will

THE ARRIVAL OF LOHENGRIN.

answer her questions. Elsa is led away, overwhelmed with terror and grief.

The story is resumed the next morning at the riverside, just where it began. The king and the nobles are preparing to start for the war and they only await the appearance of their leader, Lohengrin. To the surprise of all the dead body of Frederick is brought in. Elsa and her maids appear and Lohengrin follows them. The men urge him to place himself at the head of the army. To their surprise he refuses. He declares that Frederick broke in upon him in the night and asks the king if he did not do right thus to defend his bridal chamber. He says that Elsa, who had promised not to ask his name, doubted him and his love. He will now tell her all she wished to know, and he then reveals that he is a knight of the Holy Grail, a son of Parcifal, and Lohengrin by name. He says it was his duty as a knight that led him to come to Elsa's defense. He asks her why she destroyed their happiness by doubts. Crushed and heart-broken she begs his forgiveness. The swan returns

ORTRUD KNEELING BEFORE ELSA.

with the boat. It is a sign that he is lost to her forever.

Once more Ortrud draws near and taunts Elsa with her love for a sorcerer. She declares that with magic arts she bewitched the swan and that had Lohengrin remained Elsa might have found her lost brother. Lohengrin prays for guidance in this new difficulty and suddenly there is a miracle. The swan disappears in the river and Lohengrin lifts from the water the lost child and places him in Elsa's arms. Elsa is vindicated and Ortrud crushed with defeat, but the wedded lovers are parted forever, as Lohengrin sails away never to return.

This is the story round which the composer has woven the fine fabric of his music. Story and music are one. To hear one is to see the other, so closely are they wedded. Even to read the story is to suggest the music and revive its memory when once it has been heard. To see and hear it adequately performed is to enjoy the highest artistic experience to be found in any art.

ORIGIN OF THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY.*

BY CHARLES M. HARVEY.

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WILLIAM MACLAY, THE ORIGINAL DEMOCRAT.

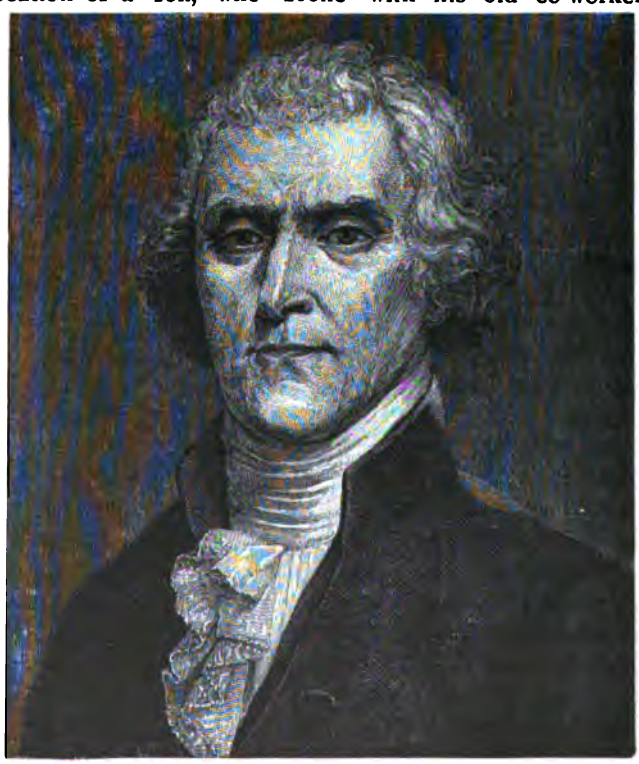
THE precise date of the Democratic party's birth cannot be set forth as definitely as can that of the younger organizations, for at the time of its advent the convention system for choosing presidential candidates had not been devised, and the congressional caucus, which usually selected them from 1800 to 1824, had not yet come into being. The first presidential canvass which it participated in was that of 1796, and this was the earliest canvass in which there was any contest for president. There was no struggle for president in 1789 and 1792. In each of those years Washington received one of the two votes which each presidential elector cast, and everybody knew he would, while the electors divided their second votes among

* For article on the "Origin of the Republican Party" see THE CHAUTAUQUAN for September, 1897.

many aspirants, John Adams in the first of these years receiving more votes than any other person and in the second year receiving more than all the others combined, thus each time being chosen vice-president. Not till 1804 were the electors required to indicate whom they wanted for president and whom for vice-president, until that time the person having the highest number of votes, if a majority, receiving the higher office and the one standing next to him receiving the lower post. The only contest that took place in 1789 and 1792, therefore, was for vice-president, and party lines were not closely drawn in either year. Before 1796, however, the Democratic party came into existence. Of course the name Democracy was not applied to it at that time. Then and for about a third of a century afterward it was known as the Republican party.

The important date-marks in the record of the origin of the Democratic party are these: 1791, in which year occurred the controversy between Jefferson and Hamilton on the question of the creation of a national bank, which furnished the practical impulse toward the founding of the new party by Jefferson, and also the year in which Philip Freneau's *National Gazette*, the new party's organ, was established; 1792, when the name of the party was formally applied and the party's purpose defined; 1793, when, in the contest between the two elements of the American people over President Washington's neutrality proclamation in the war between England and France, the line of division between the two parties was formally drawn, the Federalists favoring England and the Republicans France; 1795, in which the Republican line was further extended and the party's purpose more practically defined in its assault on the Jay treaty, which a Federalist administration negotiated and the Federalist party championed; and 1796, in which year the party made its first rally in a presidential canvass, and, in the cant of a later time, "perfected its national organization."

For two reasons the bank controversy of 1791 has a permanent historic importance: It produced the secession from the Federalists which resulted in the creation of the Republican (Democratic) party, and it revealed the line on which the great parties of that day and of the future in the United States were to divide. The Bank Bill, which was part of Hamilton's elaborate scheme to restore the public credit, provided for the establishment for twenty years of an institution to be called the United States Bank, with a capital of $10,000,000, $2,000,000 of which was to be subscribed by the government. It went through the Senate in January, 1791, without serious opposition, but in the House it was fiercely assailed on the ground that it would be unconstitutional and inexpedient. One of the strongest opponents of the bill in the House was Madison, who broke with his old co-worker



THOMAS JEFFERSON.

Hamilton permanently on this question. The act passed the House, however, and it was signed February 25, 1791.

Being strongly urged to veto the bill, President Washington, before signing it, asked the written opinions of his cabinet upon it. Secretary of State Jefferson and Attorney-General Randolph opposed the bank and Secretary of the Treasury Hamilton and Secretary of War Knox favored it. Jefferson's and Hamilton's opinions related chiefly to the constitutional aspect of the matter, and touched the fundamental question of the powers of Congress under the organic law. Jefferson argued for a strict, rigid, and literal interpretation of the Constitution, and Hamilton for a broad and liberal construction of that charter.

Many great issues—slavery, the tariff, internal improvements at national expense, the greenback and national banking schemes of the War of Secession days, and other questions of national concern—have come to the front since the controversy in 1791, in the House of Representatives and in the cabinet, on the first United States Bank, but all have touched this question of constitutional interpretation. In one aspect or another all of these issues have interrogated the people thus: Shall the grant of authority given to Congress by Article 1, Section 8 of the organic law be construed according to what is seen to be the letter, or, on the other hand, in what may be conceived to be the spirit? Jefferson advocated the former view and Hamilton the latter.

Hamilton thus brought into being the doctrine of the "implied powers," which Lodge, in his life of Hamilton, well says is "the most formidable weapon in the armory of the Constitution." Sanctioned by a long line of decisions by the courts, it has led unavoidably to an indefinite expansion of the sphere of federal legislation. The Jeffersonian ground, the strict constructionist theory, which seeks to make the powers of the states relatively large and those of the federal government relatively small, lies at the basis of the original Republican and the Democratic doctrine. The Hamiltonian view, the broad constructionist theory, which limits the authority of the states and enlarges that of the nation, has been the governing principle in the Federalist, the National Republican, the Whig, and the present Republican party's creed.

The contest on the bank question in February, 1791, which started the Republican party, with Jefferson as its directing

JAMES MADISON.

spirit and Madison as its leading spokesman in Congress, had for its sequel the establishment in Philadelphia, then the seat of government, of the *National Gazette*, which was the new party's organ. That paper's first number was issued October 15, 1791, and its last bore the date of October 13, 1793. Its editor during the two years of its existence was Philip Freneau.

The *National Gazette* attacked Washington's administration, which was dominated by Hamilton, with a ferocity and malignity characteristic of the utterances of the press and politicians of both parties at that time toward their political opponents and far transcending in bitterness and vindictiveness the most violent language used in the partisan controversies of the present day. The Federalists charged that most of these attacks on the administration were either written or "inspired" by Jefferson, who was part of the administration. Freneau in 1792 made affidavit that Jefferson had no connection with the paper, but years after-

ward he retracted this, and said that Jefferson wrote or dictated the most abusive of the articles.

Viewing the matter dispassionately a century after the event there is seen to be some ground for the accusation. One of Jefferson's published letters shows that two weeks after the rupture in the cabinet between him and Hamilton in February, 1791, on the bank question, Jefferson offered Freneau the post of translating clerk in the State Department at a nominal salary, $250 a year. In a letter to his son-in-law, May 15 of that year, Jefferson said he tried to persuade Freneau to furnish a "Whig vehicle of intelligence" to combat Fenno's *United States Gazette*, which supported the Federalists, and which Jefferson said was a "paper of pure Toryism," but that the project failed. The project was not given up, however. On August 16 Freneau got his position as translating clerk under Jefferson. October 15 his paper appeared. October 1, 1793, Freneau resigned the post of translating clerk. Twelve days later his paper was discontinued, and two months afterward Jefferson left the cabinet.

A distinctive name for the new party was still lacking, but this was soon provided.

> The Republican party, who wish to preserve the government in its present form, are fewer in number than the Federalists. They are fewer when joined by the two, three, or half a dozen Anti-Federalists, who, though they dare not avow it, are still opposed to any general government, but, being less so to a republican than to a monarchial one, they naturally join those whom they think to be pursuing the lesser evil.

This is an extract from a letter written by Secretary Jefferson to President Washington, May 23, 1792, telling of the danger to free institutions which he imagined lurked in Hamilton's nationalizing policy, which was carried out by the Federalist party. Jefferson, in this utterance, disavowed any kinship with the Anti-Federalists, and, by calling his own side Republicans, stigmatized, by implication, the Federalists as monarchists. The name Republican party was here for the first time applied officially, so to speak, to the opponents of the Federalist organization.

The name Republican was the one which Jefferson selected for his party. The excesses and follies of the French extremists during the Reign of Terror had made the designation Democracy distasteful to him. However, the radical element of his party called themselves Democrats from the beginning. That name began to be used interchangeably with Republican before Madison's service in the presidency ended, and soon after Jackson entered the presidency in 1829 the term Democratic displaced that of Republican, and has remained the party designation ever since.

A claim is made by Mr. Edgar S. Maclay, who edited the "Journal of William Maclay," which was published in 1890, that the latter, and not Jefferson, was the "true founder of the Democratic party." William Maclay was one of Pennsylvania's senators in the First Congress, that of 1789–91, and his diary of the proceedings in the Senate in those two years is the fullest account of the debates of that body that has come down to us, while his pen portraits of his colleagues and of Washington and the members of his cabinet are among the most vivid and piquant which we have. Maclay was an ardent opponent of pomp and ceremonialism in social and political affairs. He was the leader in the opposition to the granting of titles to the president and vice-president, and he expressed a vigorous dislike to the etiquette established by Washington in his intercourse with Congress and at his receptions. Funding, assumption, the United States Bank, and the other distinctively Federalist measures he violently assailed. The enactment of these measures, the general evidences of what he supposed to be corruption, and the drift of the Federalist party—the party of Washington, Adams, Hamilton, the Pinckneys, Gouverneur Morris, and Rufus King—to what he imagined to be monarchy, leads him into many extravagances of speech and causes him to despair of the republic, as is seen in the following extract from his diary:

> My mind revolts in many instances against the Constitution of the United States. Indeed, I am

afraid it will turn out the vilest of all traps that ever were set to ensnare the freedom of an unsuspecting people.

All this sounds absurd now, yet one hundred years ago many good men had grave forebodings regarding the success of the new experiment in self-government. Certainly Maclay will never be accepted as the founder of the Democratic party, but undoubtedly he was the original Democrat.

It has been said here that the Democratic party (the Jeffersonian Republican party of 1791–1829 and the same party under its Democratic name since the latter year) is a strict constructionist organization, and that its opponents (the Federalist party of 1789–1817, the National Republican of 1825–34, the Whig of 1834–54, and the present Republican party, which was born in the last-named year), have been broad constructionist parties. The terms broad and strict construction, it should be understood, however, are merely relative. That which passed for strict construction in Cleveland's days in the presidency would have been called broad construction in the early part of Jefferson's service. The line of separation between the two great partisan schools, based on the interpretation which each gives to clauses 1 and 18 of Section 8 of Article 1 of the Constitution, has never been entirely obliterated, but, through the exigencies of politics and the frequent shifting of party ground by each side, the line sometimes has faded close to the vanishing point. Party ground has shifted because each side, the strict constructionist as well as the broad, has been disposed to exercise large powers by the government when in control of the government, while each side has contended for limited powers for the government when it was on the outside.

For example, a large element of the broad constructionist Federalist party opposed, when out of power, the creation of the second United States Bank in 1816, which was based on the same principle as Hamilton's bank, which the Federalists established while in power in 1791. The strict constructionist Jeffersonian party reversed itself in the same way by creating the bank of 1816, and the bill for that bank was signed by the man who led the opposition in Congress to the earlier bank, James Madison. The broad constructionist Republican party in 1876–77 refused, for partisan reasons, to allow Congress to "go behind the returns" of the state returning boards in the Hayes–Tilden contest, and took the strict constructionist state rights side for that exigency, and the strict constructionist Democracy similarly changed its base by demanding larger powers for Congress and limited powers for the states. In theory the Democracy has been and is a state rights party. When President Jackson, however, in 1833 extirpated nullification, and when President Cleveland in 1894 suppressed the Debs insurrection in Chicago, in each instance against the protest of the government of the state directly concerned, the state rights party made state pretensions yield to national necessities.

A STORY OF THE SEA.

BY PERCIE W. HART.

SABLE ISLAND is known to sailormen as the "ditty-box of Davy Jones' locker." This simile conveys more to the marine mind than a landsman can well conjecture. The island is usually distant about ninety miles southeast from the Cape of Canso on the Nova Scotian coast, and at the present time of writing is some twenty-five miles in length by one in breadth. These qualitatives are written advisedly, for this weird waif of the ocean changes both position and shape with every storm, and has increased by ten miles of area or contracted in the same ratio during a single season. It is a mammoth heap of sand, whirled about in the eddies of the Gulf

Stream, having some few sparse patches of grass scattered here and there, but without a single tree or even shrub to hide its nakedness. Lying almost directly in the path of navigation between the Old and New Worlds, it has caught high-decked caravels and modern steel steamships alike into its cruel embrace, and the few survivors who have managed to scramble out of reach of the hungry waves never lacked driftwood or wreckage. But Sable Island has a hundred heart-moving tales, aside from its mighty volume of ship disaster, and the simplest one of all is that which I have here written down.

Just eight years short of three centuries ago a small armed vessel known colloquially as a "barcalonga" came sailing into the narrow-mouthed bay upon the southeastern side of the island, and, after lowering sail, dropped her kedge anchor upon its shallow bottom. A few rods back from the shore, and fully concealed from the view of those on shipboard by one of the many wavelike ranges of sand-hills, lay two raggedly clad and wild-eyed human beings, watching the movements of the vessel with pitiful eagerness visible in every feature. One of these twain was a mere stripling of perhaps but little over a score of years, while the other, with his extravagantly long white beard and hairless head, looked a very patriarch.

"How now, good Jacques?" quoth the youngster, with a gesture of impatience. "Art ready to greet these mariners? Methinks hast had ample time to satisfy thine odd scruples in regard to their intent. An old sailorman should certainly show more joy at meeting his own tradesmen than any others, and yet here you lie concealed, and watch them with moving lips and unwinking eyes, as if they were the very genii of the deep."

"Tarry but a few moments' space longer before discovering thyself irrevocably unto them, boy Julian," replied the ancient, without for one instant removing his rapt gaze from the barcalonga. "And surely thou wilt not be hasty, when thy rashness may imperil others as well as thyself."

"Again and yet again thou hast repeated this vague answer to my questioning," retorted the boy hotly; "an 'twere not that thou hast been like unto an elder brother to me in these past years of misery I would long since have rushed down upon the beach and hailed this gay ship to take me aboard and bear me away to lands where trees grow and there is grain to be made into bread. Faugh!" he ejaculated discontentedly, "I've grown so wearied of birds' eggs and cranberries and cranberries and birds' eggs that I fain would go back to the galleys and taste the black broth that I once despised."

"Julian, lad," spake the ancient, moving slightly to one side and placing his big calloused palm upon the young man's shoulder in a paternal manner, "seven times has the winter's snow come and gone since the Marquis de la Roche landed us upon this barren spot, promising that he would return within a few weeks' time with seeds and settlers from the mainland. Forty of us then there were, convicts all from the galleys of France, strong and lusty from toiling at the oars, and fearing nothing but the lash of our masters. If this ship had come but six years ago—aye or even five—it would have gone hard but what we should have got away by hook or by crook from this miserable spot. But look ye! Here is but a scant dozen of us left alive, and you and I—an old, decrepit man and a young, half-starved boy—the only ones able to do much more than drag aweary bodies slowly along the beach. Is this, think you, a time to fight for a ship or for freedom?"

"Let them take us back to the dungeons then," cried the lad passionately. "No cell could be worse than this forsaken sand island. Yet mark these men's bravery," pointing, as he uttered the words, at the deck of the ship. "See the rich apparel of every color, the flash of jewels, and the gleam of polished metal. These seem to me most like to be a party of noblemen put forth upon a summer's voyage for pure wantonness. They would be just the ones to feed us well and return us safely to our native

land. I see nothing wherein to make them out your bloodthirsty buccaneers."

"Nay, nay," replied Jacques, shaking his head dubiously. "Thou'lt find all manner of men among those who sail the deep seas, and as much mixed company in cabins as under palace roofs; but whereas on shore the rogues are apt to dress in shoddy and the true gentlemen in silks and velvet, at sea you'll generally find it the other way."

"Yet would it not be better to throw ourselves upon their mercy than remain here perhaps for the rest of our natural lives?"

"And what mercy dost think we would command from men who rob honest ships and send every soul on board to feed the fishes? Isn't it better to live on eggs a little while longer than to be meat for the birds ourselves? But look—and still keep thy head low: they are launching the pinnace and making ready to come ashore. Let us lie concealed even yet for some little season. As long as they are on the island it will always be possible for us to make ourselves known unto them."

Even as he spoke the last few words a number of men crowded into the small boat, and with a few strokes of the oars she grounded upon the beach. Removing several packages from her thwarts, including an iron-bound box with handles at the sides and several big earthenware jugs, the party proceeded leisurely inland, passing within a stone's throw of the hiding-place wherein the convict castaways lay concealed.

There were just nineteen in the number, according to the after statements of both Jacques and Julian; and even in the haziness of the oncoming twilight the latter could see that they were men of divers climes and conditions. One of the pair that carried the iron-bound chest (which seemed to be abnormally heavy) was a yellow-haired man of gigantic stature, who uttered an almost continuous volley of oaths in the sweetly sibilant accents of the Scottish Highlands, while his co-worker and grumbler wore the drooping mustachio and replied in the stately vituperations of the hidalgo of Spain. Equally diverse in type of personality, albeit alike in noisy wrangle and dispute, were the rest of the miniature caravan.

They moved along without any particular semblance of order for about half a mile inland, until they reached a narrow, low-lying hollow among the sand-hills, in which, after a considerable amount of discussion, they halted and laid down their several burdens.

By the time the two refugees were able to get in a position from which they could watch the movements of the party without discovering their own identity, the aforesaid Scotchman and Spaniard had scraped a shallow hole in the sand, into which the heavy box was lowered. Scarcely had the former relaxed his grip upon the handle, when both Jacques and Julian grew sick with horror at the sight of the olive-skinned man brandishing a long, lean knife, which he almost instantly sheathed to the hilt in the back of the half-kneeling giant. With a cry that sent the wild gulls soaring aloft, the Scot fell face downward upon the chest of treasure, to gain which he had undoubtedly shared in the shedding of peaceful blood.

The two hidden ones waited, in the expectation of seeing summary vengeance executed upon the murderer; but to their dismay no movement was made to that end. On the contrary, several of the onlookers assisted the Spaniard in scooping up sand with their hands and throwing it into the hole, until the still warm body and treasure-chest alike had vanished, and nothing remained but a smooth surface of sand.

The sight of this cold-blooded killing had its due effect upon the two convicts. Instead of making themselves known to these ruffians they thought only of how best to keep from their sight; and their hearts sunk within them when they remembered that their rude huts upon the far eastern end of the island could readily be discerned from any one of the higher sand hillocks. That some of the buccaneers would undoubtedly note them upon the morrow, and that a visit to them would follow, seemed altogether certain. To get back to their weaker comrades and inform them of the impending danger, so that all might desert

their rude habitations and leave the buccaneers to imagine the island completely tenantless, became at once their prime object.

Scarcely noting that the pirates had thrown themselves down in various easy positions upon the sand beneath which they had just buried both victim and booty, and that the jugs of spirits were passing from hand to hand, to the accompaniment of hoarsely crooned ribald songs and noisy merriment, the twain cautiously crawled on hands and knees until they had placed a mile or more between themselves and the roisterers. After resting for a few moments while waiting for the gathering darkness to prevent all possibility of their being sighted as they traveled across the broad expanse, they rose to their feet and commenced their long tramp toward that part of the island which they designated by the name of "Les Jardins Français" (the French Gardens), as indeed it is called up to the present day.

Meanwhile the wind came in ever stronger gusts, and the always roaring surf was growing perceptibly noisier. The two convicts, sadly weakened by privation and, suffering, not to speak of the scene through which they had just passed, could with difficulty manage to drag their feet over the ground. Mile after mile, however, was gradually placed behind them; and although it seemed at times as if they must give up the struggle and lie down, they finally reached their destination. Even as they reeled within the slight shelter of their miserable hovels the storm broke in all its fury. Of all the gales that these castaways had experienced during their long sojourn upon the island, this was by far the worst. The wind blew with all the force of a tropic hurricane, and in spite of their distance from the sea the salt spray beat down upon them like rain.

Although impressed with the gravity of the impending danger, the little band could not make up their minds to desert the flimsy shelter and brave the inclemency of the elements. "It might be just as well to wait for morning," counseled Jacques at length; "even buccaneers would scarcely stir abroad upon such a night." But the terror of what the ensuing day might bring forth filled their hearts; and all these men, who had unfalteringly committed the most revolting of crimes in their native land, fairly quaked at each sound made by the ill-fastened boards in their dwellings, as the cruel force of the wind beat down upon them.

When daylight drew near, the little band gathered together their scanty belongings, and after removing every vestige of late occupancy from the buildings took their departure toward the extreme end of the island. There, huddling under the poor shelter of the sand-hills, and but meagerly supplied with sea-gulls' eggs, they waited the possibility of discovery in fear and trembling. They lay thus hidden for three days and three nights.

Finding the suspense totally unbearable, and half crazed by their forced inaction, old Jacques and young Julian finally volunteered to go upon a reconnoitering expedition. After solemnly vowing that in the event of capture torture itself should not cause them to reveal the presence of their companions, they started forth.

The reason that made their venture seem particularly hazardous lay in the fact that one of their convict comrades, gifted with unusually keen sight, declared that he could discern the top of the stubby mast of the barcalonga over the distant sand-hills. If this were actually the case, it of course showed that the buccaneers had not left the vicinity, and that mayhap they were even then strolling in bands around the island. In this latter event capture was almost certain, for the rolling dunes were utterly inadequate for hiding purposes if the fugitives were once caught sight of.

The twain made but slow progress, as they halted every few moments in order to listen for any sound of voices coming in their direction; and it was not till a full hour after nightfall that they reached the shore of the little bay. To their consternation and surprise they found the pinnace almost afloat with the high tide, looking seemingly just

as the pirates had left her when they were there three days before; and there, sure enough, dimly outlined against the dark gray sky, was the trim little ship, without a sign of life perceptible aboard of her.

"The buccaneers must be still continuing their wild orgies inland, unmindful alike of day or night," commented old Jacques, after they had gazed some few moments in silence.

"What is to prevent our taking the pinnace and boarding the vessel, leaving you in possession while I swim ashore and hasten back to bring the rest of the company up? And then, heigho, for the open sea, leaving the pirates to enjoy our past pleasures!" cried Julian, with all the excitability of youth.

"But what if there be a guard, armed and all, aboard the vessel?" remonstrated Jacques, with all the corresponding hesitancy of age.

"Try it," was the young man's only response.

"And the others—could they make the journey in time?"

"Try it."

But still, while Jacques was apparently hesitating vocally, he made no delay in helping the younger man ease the light boat off the beach and paddle her noiselessly out to the anchored vessel. Once on board, they found their precaution unnecessary, for the only living thing was a dimunitive pet monkey. This little animal showed that it was feeling the pangs of starvation by the eagerness with which it snatched some raisins proffered from the hand of Julian.

After gaining new life and vigor from the almost forgotten varieties of food and drink that they found upon the vessel, the twain set about carrying out the remainder of Julian's bold plan. Jacques brought up a number of swords and pikes from below, loaded both of the clumsy culverins that stood upon the barcalonga's deck, and, with the pinnace securely fastened on the offshore side of the vessel, awaited any possible attack with equanimity.

To Julian fell the task of swimming ashore and making his way in the darkness over the yielding sands to where their comrades awaited them in fear and trembling. Even the veteran lighthousemen of to-day would hesitate before attempting the night journey of the young French convict. The island sands are terrible in their shiftings, and yielding morasses capable of swallowing a man in a single second dot the plain. But safely he went, and safely—though very slowly—came the little haggard band (their brains whirling and their pains all gone at the prospect of a speedy deliverance from the hated island) back with him. It was broad daylight when they clambered up on deck from the boat and eagerly commenced to unloose the sail preparatory to hoisting it. Scarce was this work well commenced when one gazed steadily to seaward for a brief instant, and then threw himself down upon his face, shrieking aloud:

"This cursed island is the devil's very own! The bay is now but a lake! Look, ye who believe me not!"

With one accord they turned toward the erstwhile mouth of the little bay, to find themselves completely surrounded by rolling sand-dunes. With blanched faces and sickening hearts they realized that the recent storm had changed the island's shape, as had happened more than once before during their own comparatively short residence upon it, and that the former bay was now merely a shore-bound lake, inside which the barcalonga lay hopelessly imprisoned.

For upwards of a week they remained in undisputed possession of the ship, gaining strength and valor by reason of the nourishing food from which they had been so long debarred. And as in well-armed bands they examined the whole broad surface of the island and found no trace of the buccaneers, the truth came slowly home to them. The carousing pirates had been caught by the sand-laden winds in their drunken stupor and had slowly but surely been buried alive, along with their gold and their murdered comrade. A mountain of sand now stood where before had been a deep valley, and the retribution of Heaven was complete.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

HOUSEHOLD ECONOMICS.

BY MARY E. GREEN, M. D.

PRESIDENT OF THE NATIONAL HOUSEHOLD ECONOMIC ASSOCIATION.

Where is there any condition higher than the ordering of the house?—*Goethe.*

WHEN the various congresses of the Columbian Exposition were organized, embracing, as they did, religion, sociology, philanthropy, art, education, kindergarten, woman suffrage, psychical research, and a number of other subjects, women perceived that there was room in none of them for any consideration of the domestic problem. It was out of a great need that the Congress of Household Economics was evolved. To Mrs. Potter Palmer, Mrs. Charles Henrotin, Mrs. John Wilkinson, and Mr. Bonney the women of America owe a debt of gratitude. The National Household Economic Association is one of the organizations that have merged into a corporate association since the Columbian Exposition.

What is household economics? one is often asked. Why do we need this science more to-day than in the generation of our ancestors? We have always needed the help that just this science will bring to homes and women, but never until to-day have women been keenly alive to their needs. In brief, household economics is the science of household work so systematized, simplified, and ordered as to insure economy, comfort, and health within the home.

While the subject is wide-reaching, the physical features of the home must be first considered: its location, construction, and sanitation; the best and most economical methods of heating, lighting, ventilating. Not less to be considered, since man has a soul as well as a body, is artistic excellence in the furnishing. It is well to remember that the most artistic furnishings may be ideally simple and sanitary.

The study of household economics next includes the individual in his relation to the home; personal hygiene, the care of the body in regard to labor and rest, cleanliness, warmth, proper clothing, and diet, the latter including the study of foods from both the nutritive and economic points of view. The science of cookery requires careful study because our traditional methods are so often opposed to science. Lastly, we must study the relation of the child to the home, adapting all methods that shall conduce to a rounded, wholesome development, physical, mental, and moral. The mother has immense resources in this line in the mass of literature already published upon child study and the philosophy of the kindergarten. Last and most dreaded task of all, we must study this problem of domestic service.

The home has not made the progress that we see in every other direction. Homes are still unsanitary, food is still wasted, our cooking has long been credited with creating a nation of dyspeptics, and sewage is often so illy disposed as to breed disease. We claim to possess a more advanced civilization than at the beginning of the century, when so many of the industrial trades were carried on in the home. Yet the domestic problem is more intricate than ever. In the days of primitive simplicity there were, in nearly all homes, large families of children. In the home was carried on the carding of the wool, spinning, weaving, dyeing, and all of the knitting and sewing. Fruit was dried and preserved, meat was cured, soap and candles, bread and pastry, butter and cheese, all were home products. How busy were the women of those days! And yet it is only the modern woman, who has at her command the loom and knitting machine of the factory, the great packing houses, bakeries, and dairies, the butcher, the baker,

the candlestick-maker, all waiting to serve her, who complains of lack of time. This is an era of small and in too many cases childless families, and to-day the housewife's greatest trial is this domestic service problem, which she is unable to solve. For this reason is it that so many families drift into boarding-houses or become wrecked in a measure through the little annoyances of daily life.

The daughter no longer shares domestic labor, as formerly, with her mother. The household work is done (after a fashion) by servants. So she enters school with her brothers and later in life becomes their competitor in every occupation open to men. When this girl marries, as it is more than probable that she will do, she is wholly unfitted to enter a home as administrator; and as a result she sacrifices both her strength and nervous energy, her husband's patience and sometimes his regard, and the health and comfort of her children. I am reminded of one beautiful girl whose sole preparation for housekeeping was a course of cooking lessons. After a trial of a few months both husband and wife moved into a boarding-house. The wife knew nothing of the principles of cookery, nothing of the science of marketing, nothing of the relation of food to the needs of the system, nothing of the business sense and tact needed to manage a home. Is there any other occupation on earth into which people enter for a term of service without a particle of preliminary training? The years are strewn with the heartaches, wrecked health, and wasted energies of just such women.

It is evident, therefore, that housekeeping or home-making is a profession requiring thought and study, and one which dignifies every woman who enters it with the purpose of doing her very best possible under all circumstances. Women do not realize the advantage of making the home a place of repose to the family instead of the tempestuous resort that is often seen, wherein the mismanagement is attended to by a nervous, incapable wife or by ignorant domestics.

How may women gain this much-needed knowledge? The best means of all is individual study, and help is at the hand of any earnest woman in these days of teachers and books. Nothing can take the place of that in any science. Next to that the woman's club may be made an effective agent. I once heard a woman boast of belonging to twenty-one clubs. She knew Emerson and Browning, Ibsen and Tolstoi, yet to save her life she could not have told you why she kneaded her bread instead of treating it like a soda biscuit or why the slices of toast were brown upon the surface instead of white. She did not know the simplest principles of cooking, of sanitation, of economy in buying household supplies, and yet she was a home-maker. If every woman's club in America were to devote the next two years to the study of household economics I believe the domestic problem would soon be solved.

The granges and associations of women in rural districts should appropriate certain days for this study upon the occasion of every county and state fair. The farmers' institutes which are held in nearly all of our states might profitably set aside a day for household economics, a day in which the women of the agricultural districts might meet for conference, with the advantage of lectures or classes in this subject by those who understand the science. Clubs for the study of the home and its keeping may be formed among the girls who fill our business offices, shops, factories, and stores. Household work is already a feature of the training in reformatory and industrial schools in which women and girls are detained, but except in rare cases it is incomplete and unscientific.

Agricultural colleges should inaugurate a department of household science for the benefit of the women of the state, as has already been done in Kansas and in Michigan. No class of women is so annoyed by lack of sanitary conveniences and none is so enslaved by the folly of excessive cake-baking and pastry-making as the wives of farmers.

Above all, the science of housekeeping should be taught in our public schools. It

is a truism in education that if we would accomplish something permanent we must begin with the children. If household economics were taught in the public schools it would rise to the dignity of the other school studies and false pride would no longer deter intelligent and refined girls from entering domestic service. Competent and intelligent domestics could then be secured to our homes; but better than all would be the comfort in store for the future homes which these girls will some day enter as mistresses. On the other hand, the mothers of the employed classes would be much more relieved of anxiety for their daughters when they saw them enter sheltered and refined homes as domestics than is the case at present when they enter the unhealthful atmosphere (both morally and physically) of factory or shop.

It is a hopeful sign that the Chautauqua Assemblies of many of our states are now holding yearly conferences on this and kindred subjects. It is wholly probable that a two days' session of the National Household Economic Association will be held during the Tennessee Exposition.

Thus the leaven is at work. "To the individual the condition of household economics means the health and happiness of life. Whether we live or die, and how we live and die, is largely determined by our household conditions. We cannot afford to have this cradle of life, the home, in an inferior or defective condition, else is the life that comes out of it malformed and defective."

I WONDER IF IN HEAVEN.

BY LOUIS H. BUCKSHORN.

I WONDER if the daffodil
Its golden glow doth safely lift
Above the blue dome's sunny rift?

I wonder if the pinky bloom
Beneath the winter's remnant gloom
Can send aloft its sweet perfume?

I wonder if the caroled note
From oriole and red-breast throat
On heaven's stillness ever broke?

And answer came:
The sunset in the parting west
Hangs low, in dream, its golden crest
On gentle evening's soothing breast.

The quiet pose of darkling air
Breathes forth a vibrant fragrance rare,
Like beds of bloom secreted there.

And twinkling stars on heaven's brink
Seem straying notes that sight must link
With song ear hears from bobolink.

THE WEDGE OF SUCCESS.

BY LILIAN WHITING.

HOW can the educated woman earn her living? It is the problem—at least *a* problem—of the day. How can the *un*educated woman earn her living? the reader may reply, with a conviction that the conundrum propounded in this interrogation quite exceeds the other. But a little reflection may suggest a doubt. Any thoughtful survey of the industrial panorama will incline the observer to believe that the purely material and immediate gains, at the present time, are far more on the side of the women whose tastes and traditions do not debar them from the more primitive forms of service than they are for the scholarly woman who has not an over-mastering enthusiasm for some special work. When one has that, the problem of life is solved. The way to success may lie through devious and uncertain ways, through evil report and good report, through denials and defeats, but it is as assured, in final result, as the course of the sun in the heavens. A fixed, definite purpose not only leads to success; it is success.

However, to return for a moment to the outlook for the college girl who has not gone on to study for a profession: Does it differ widely from that of the man who has not chosen a profession? The girl is refined, more or less cultivated (beyond the mere fact of being educated), well-bred, attractive, perhaps even charming—a girl who would make a *beau rôle* as the daughter of a happy home. But there is no home. Perhaps the girl has not only her own future to consider, but that of a delicate and dependent mother. What can she do to earn money?

Full of that confidence which is born of ignorance—and which is still a most important factor in the problem of living—the girl and her mother seek a large city. They secure a furnished room or two and take their meals "out"—here or there, as they can. The girl begins her search for employment. She is neatly dressed, sweet, true, and good; she is well educated, with a fair range of literary and social culture. But what can she do? She has not exactly the requirements for a public school-teacher, although she is probably more liberally educated than many who succeed admirably as teachers in the public schools. Moreover, there is no probability of her securing a place in them if she tried. She speaks and reads two or three languages, it may be, and very likely she is sufficiently musical to play and sing in a manner to give pleasure to her family and friends. But all this is nothing from the point of view of the professional market. To teach the languages requires some gift beyond that of even a good college acquaintance with them, and the cities are full of teachers of languages besides the schools that make them the specialty. Our heroine is not a writer in the sense of the special gift; she has doubtless contributed sketch and verse to her college paper which she exhibits with some pride, but in the literary or journalistic market such efforts are totally valueless.

The application of the law of exclusion settles some points. Here is an engaging young college woman who cannot teach in the public schools or give special tuition in music or languages. Nor can she be a journalist or an author; she cannot sew, she sees no fitting opportunities as a saleswoman; she has not the special exact training required for a cashier or a bookkeeper, though more than likely she has far greater range of general culture than many experts in these lines; she cannot compete with the experienced typewriter; factory and domestic service are not for her, and the question as to what she can do still lacks solution.

There are three other kinds of work that might especially commend themselves to the

college non-professional woman: that of the telephonic services, of assistants in public libraries, and of proof-readers in book publishing houses. But curiously the pay here is very disproportionate to the requirements. A woman proof-reader—and it requires a good degree of scholarship to be an expert proof-reader—receives from six to ten dollars a week and her hours are from eight to five, six days in the week. An assistant in a library receives about the same; while women in the employ of the telephonic service often work for from five to eight dollars a week, the hours being from eight till six each day. A college girl sometimes fixes her mind on being a private secretary to an author, a clergyman, or a business man. But to the author, even were he able to employ one, which he usually is not, she cannot be of much real use, for writing is not a work that can be relegated to another, and if copying is desired the typewriter is preferred. The minister cannot, as a rule, give regular and continuous employment, and the untried woman, ignorant of business, cannot be an assistant of value to a business man. What, then, can she do? Is the field hopeless? By no means. It is just here that there comes in that salient truth which we may call the gospel of the entering wedge.

For really it does not make the slightest difference in the world, so far as ultimate success goes, as to where one begins. Success is in the individual, not in the circumstances. It consists solely in the insight, or the instinct, as it sometimes is, of knowing how to put in the entering wedge. If the girl, eager to advance, can simply secure any one round of the ladder on which to stand—a mere foothold—she has then every conceivable opportunity. The rest lies with herself. It is the inner purpose, not the outer conveniences, that control destiny. No one "finds" places; a place must be made.

For instance: recently a young woman in a large city who had long been trying to secure a place as typewriter found one in the mayor's office of a neighboring town. The salary was but ten dollars a week and board cost her six dollars. The surplus was not large, it is true; still four dollars a week on the plus side is better than so much on the minus side, as it must be to one running in debt. Aside from this, however, here comes in the gospel of the entering wedge. There are both a visible and invisible side to every undertaking. The latter is the more determining. The girl who is doing her work—any work—faithfully, who is paying her expenses and something more, who, in that peace of mind which financial solvency gives her (for solvency or bankruptcy may be just as satisfactory, or just as torturing, on a small scale as on a large one)—the girl who has simply conquered standing-ground on the visible and material side may now proceed to build up her success on the invisible—which is the more real side.

To gain the respect and the confidence of the employer is often a most potent and permanent factor in success. In the instance cited it would have been one of great value. There was no opportunity for preferment in that specific place, but the mayor was a man of a wide range of acquaintance and influence, one whose recommendation would carry weight in favor of securing elsewhere a place more lucrative and satisfactory. And, too, a margin of leisure with one's self, on a basis that is at least paying expenses, is a needed prelude to entering on a wider class of work. In this case the girl did not see the opportunity; she only saw four dollars a week, and decided it was not worth the earning. So she left this foothold, instead of entering her wedge of faith, of energy, of conviction, and returned to the city, there again to engage in the struggle.

A young woman in journalistic work once remarked to me that she did not try to do very good work, as the paper that employed her "didn't pay much." Ah, but one can far better afford to have his work exceed his pay than to have his pay exceed his work. Let one do a week's work worth fifty dollars for ten, and he is on the road to success; let him receive fifty dollars a week for work worth only ten, and he is on the road

to failure. Good work cuts its own channel and eventually controls its rate of compensation. Poor work, no matter how well salaried, cannot long sustain itself. One who always gives of his best, whether well paid or ill paid, will get on, for he is entering and driving in his wedge; he is in accord with that divine law expressed by Emerson in the injunction, "Put God and the universe in your debt."

Character is an enormous factor in success. The personal impression made by the worker is almost, if not quite, an equal factor with the special gift or aptitude in the final achievement.

In the kinds of work to which reference has here been made—the telephonic, the proof-reading, the library—the girl who should begin anywhere in anything would, if she had the right combination of energy and faith, develop any kind of a clue into a leading to success.

Suppose, even, that for a time a girl makes no money at all besides that required for actual expenses. After all, she is living, and life itself is an achievement. If she is living in a high and holy way, she is gathering forces to control the outward situation. She is in God's world; she is ready to enter on the work that he gives her to do. She is gaining experience—that priceless acquirement. She is learning the practical value, the infinite potency of prayer. Perpetual aspiration will be, in some time and way, transfigured into inspiration. Let one not undervalue the entering wedge of success.

It is the power of thought that the college woman should bring to bear on conditions—a power impossible to the less trained and cultivated woman. She must realize that thought is the greatest of the creative forces; that her intellectual discipline is a potent factor to shape and transform conditions, and that to begin anywhere she can obtain a foothold, and concentrate her energy and faith upon the project, is the way to develop the most limited conditions into a broad and noble outlook. Mere circumstances are of little consequence, for they are plastic to the potency of thought and of purpose.

INDIAN NATIVE SKILL.

BY CHIEF POKAGON.

I HAVE been prompted to write the following article on Indian native skill in consideration of the fact that the burial-places of our fathers in times past have been laid waste by the dominant race, and their graves robbed of their bones and those implements which were buried with them according to our ancient custom.

The only excuse, outside of curiosity, yet given by white men for such acts of inhumanity has been the desire that they may better understand the physical development of our forefathers and their ancient history, claiming they were able to read in the battle-axe and spear of stone and in the arrow-head and knife of flint found in our burial-places that we were savages from the beginning.

With my hands uplifted before heaven I have always most solemnly protested against such wanton acts of inhumanity, declaring most emphatically that it is far better for their people to interest themselves in what our people now are and what they may become than to theorize on what they may have been. Therefore in this brief article I shall treat first of our splint work, which is a novelty greatly admired.

This artistic work is made of such raw material as can be gathered from the surrounding woods, and speaks volumes for the ingenuity of our race. The splints are wrought out of the black ash tree. A tree is selected from twelve to twenty inches in diameter and cut into logs from six to ten feet long. The bark is peeled off and the log thoroughly pounded all over with a wooden mall. This process breaks

up the coarse, porous wood between the outside and the previous year's growth. The outside year's growth of wood is then peeled off in strips from two to four inches wide. The surface is again pounded as before and another year's growth stripped off. This process of pounding and stripping continues until the log is worked up into splints. These are scrubbed or shaven smooth and cut into proper widths to make such baskets as the weaver desires, varying in size from a lady's thimble to a three-bushel hamper. The splints are then colored and woven into shape by our maids and matrons. Basket after basket is made in an incredibly short space of time and packed away for sale or future use.

Indian women as a general rule have finely molded hands, and to watch the cunning fingers of those well skilled in the art is curiously interesting. They are proficient in the production of natural colors that please the eye. Those best skilled in the art educate themselves in this branch of their work by watching the rainbow in the storm and the golden clouds of sunset. In fact no true admirer of the beautiful can look through a well-arranged bazaar of these goods without feeling in his heart that they must have been dipped in the rainbow and washed in the sunshine.

Another industry in which our people are proficient is birch-bark work. Before giving an account of this, in order that it may be more fully understood and appreciated I will briefly give a description of the white birch tree, so called on account of its white, smooth bark. Originally the shores of our northern lakes and streams were fringed with it and the evergreen. The white charmingly contrasted with the green, and, mirrored in the water, was indeed beautiful; but, like the red man, this tree is vanishing from our forests.

Nature has richly provided this peculiar tree with two grades of bark: an inner gray bark, which runs with the grain of the wood, and an outer bark, the grain of which runs round the tree at right angles to the inside gray bark. During each year a layer of thin, tough, paper-like bark is found around the outside of the inner gray bark and under the previous year's bark growth. These sheets, being formed annually, cause the bark in time to become manifold; and as the tree increases in size they must grow and expand so as to correspond with the increased diameter of the tree. During springtime the various years' growth of bark can be separated and wound off in single, double, or triple sheets, so as to suit the different kinds of work desired. For some cause these sheets of bark of different years' growth vary in hues of red, white, and gold.

Out of this white birch tree bark, hats, caps, mats, boxes, and dishes are made for domestic use, as well as miniature boats, houses, churches, and all kinds of strange devices to please and excite curiosity. In former years kettles were made of it in which red-hot stones were placed in water to boil our food. Maple sap was boiled down to sugar in like manner. Gay-colored ribbons were also made of it, with which maidens tied the knot that sealed their marriage vow. It was also used for light and fuel at our war councils and spirit dances. Large canoes were made of it that outrode the violent storms on lake and sea.

Such fancy work is interwoven with porcupine quills so stained as to appear like flowers in all their natural colors, with leaves and stems of green, or it is trimmed with sweet grass, which for years breathes forth rich perfume. Some tribes decorate their work with colored beads, but ours will not. They deem the use of the white man's manufacture an impeachment of their native skill; hence they ornament their moccasins and all their native wearing apparel with various colored porcupine quills, which gives a market value among us for an animal useless and despised by the white man.

Boat-making is an industry that reached a high degree of perfection among us long before the discovery of America. Our boats in general use were made by stretching sheets of birch-bark over a canoe frame of yellow cedar, a very light, durable, and strong timber; the boat was then turned over a slow fire, or red-hot stones, which

softened the bark, making it elastic and pliable, so it could be stretched snugly over the frame and tightly secured. When cooling off it became as tight as a drumhead about the frame. Its seams were then smeared with pine pitch within and without. Two Indians could carry such a boat of two or three tons' burden several miles overland from one stream to another.

During autumn prior to and during the first of this century a majority of the red men residing in the region of Grand Traverse Bay, Mich., would appoint a certain day and designate a place of meeting on Lake Michigan with their long birch canoes carrying from two to five persons and all the camp equipage necessary for a winter's campaign. When all was ready, at a signal given their little fleet was launched and sailed southward along the great lake two hundred miles to the mouth of Muskegon and the river Grand. From there they sailed up these beautiful streams, and scattered themselves along the shores and tributaries to hunt, trap, and fish during the winter. When springtime came, with boats loaded with sugar, honey, meats, and furs they met near the mouths of these streams, and after celebrating the feast of the dead they again set sail upon the lake for their northern home.

During the summer of 1893 there was a celebrated regatta at Harbor Springs, Mich. The circuit trail for the race was marked out twelve miles by buoys on Traverse Bay. Skilful navigators gathered there from far and near, with their yachts constructed on the most scientific plans for speed, and entered for the race; among them was one launched by an Indian from the north woods, whom they called "moss-back" and laughed at for his ignorance in bringing such a rude craft to compete with yachts of scientific make. Some in pity for him said,

> Lo, the poor Indian whose untutored mind
> Sees God in clouds or hears him in the wind.

Others, less sympathetic, said confidently, "He will go home a much wiser 'Injun' than he came."

Some Ottawa Indians and I took our position on the highland in plain view of the circuit trail marked out for the race. At length the signal-gun to start was fired. Slowly the little fleet moved out into the bay. We could tell the native boat on account of the smoky appearance of its sails in contrast with the others of pure white, which glistened like snow in the sunshine. As they neared the extreme buoy to the east of us, four miles away, my anxiety increased for the red man's yacht, but I could not discern which, if any, were in the advance. But as they rounded the buoy for the return trip I was startled by the words, "E-nau-bin! E-nau-bin!" (Do look! Do look!). I looked, and to my great joy saw the smoky canvas was just in the advance. But I realized that on the return trip they must beat back to the starting-point against a strong adverse wind, and I feared in my heart that the white man's superior knowledge of the art of navigation would outrival the red man's experience and native skill. To my glad surprise, however, he handled his canvas with greater ease and success than did his rivals, and continued to gain at every tack as they beat against the wind, until the race was fairly won. Then a shout long and loud went up from the mixed multitude along the shore. "Hurrah for the moss-back! The prize is his! Hurrah for the redskin! Hurrah! Hurrah!" was echoed from shore to shore around the bay.

The following year at a regatta on the same bay an Indian again won the first prize, since which time no red man has been permitted to compete for it.

I do not speak of the achievements of my race with a boastful heart, but because I most keenly realize that unless the natural ability of my people is recognized by the dominant race they cannot rise to that station for which the God of nature intends them.

THE SPEAKING AND THE SINGING VOICE.

BY FANNIE C. W. BARBOUR.

SHAKESPEARE tells us:

> There's not the smallest orb which thou beholdest,
> But in his motion like an angel sings.

There is some form of music to be found in all things in nature which move and have no soul; but the rarest music, the sweetest because most touching, is that of the voice of a human being, the only living thing that sings and has a soul. Any sensible suggestion, then, which assists us to bring the voice nearer in attune with nature's harmonies is welcomed with joy by the true lover of pure music.

One of the latest methods to facilitate the study of vocal music is that of "Voice Culture through Physical Training"; and this system is gaining quite a hold upon music instructors both in this country and abroad. The theory of a close connection between the singing and the speaking voice is accentuated throughout the courses, and special emphasis is placed upon the assertion that a correct pose of the body in standing and sitting, as well as the general tone of the physical condition of the student, makes all the difference in the quality of the voice.

The exponents of the above supposition declare that "to sing well is to be well," also that the singing voice differs from speech only in that it is a higher development of the same power. They tell us that if singers would only acquire the art of talking from the chest, and in the same musical key in which their voices are naturally pitched, they could use their voices freely in ordinary speech without injury. A thorough understanding of the art of speech would enable vocalists to take part in any performance in which speaking and singing are combined, for they could talk in the same key in which they have been singing without harming the voice, as Calvé does in "Carmen."

At the first lesson in the course an effort is made to discover and to cultivate the *personal rhythm*. Few indeed are gifted with an accurate sense of rhythm, and it is far from easy to acquire. Letchetitsky says the reason Americans are so often seasick is because they and the ship are never together.

The French, who always cultivate the individuality of each person in everything they undertake, say that "in true proportion lies strength." And so these instructors endeavor to bring together any conflicting qualities existing between the speaking and the singing voice, until we can hardly distinguish the dividing line. They tell us to use a whole octave of tones when we answer *yes*, and an entire scale for the word *no*.

Mrs. Milward Adams, of Chicago, declares that we all hold our chests too high, and that the French say that the American woman has a *bourgeoise* chest. Their peasant women hold the chest high, while the *grande dame* of France has the long, low chest which is considered one mark of aristocracy in that country. Miss Emma Thursby, together with a score of other well-known music instructors, advocates the cultivation of the speaking and singing voice by a system of physical culture which teaches a proper pose of the voice as well as of the body. The well-known Dr. M. Augusta Brown Girard also declares that the power and quality of the voice depend entirely upon the tone and vigor of the whole system. The method she consequently advocates is first to pay attention to the general health of the student, with the principle that any mode of life which promotes health and strength is favorable to voice production, and anything that fatigues is detrimental.

A number of the more advanced exponents of the above theories have lately been illustrating by actual demonstration the kinship of melody and poetry, portrayed by the same

person as vocalist and elocutionist. Exhibitions are given at which notable poems which have been set to music by famous composers are read and then sung immediately afterward, thus making clear the double value of a song which, musical when read, can be made more musical when reenforced by the power of another art.

One very interesting theory held by some of these vocalists is that the natural register of the speaking voice indicates the individual character of the speaker as do the lines on the palms of the hand. For instance, a high soprano voice expresses joy and merriment. Complex natures, who carry on two qualities of thought at once, speak in harmonies, with several notes at a time, and have magnetic voices. The minor voice betrays lack of confidence, the major voice indicates intense vitality. The mental attitude shows itself in a voice with a sliding downward scale, as in most teachers' voices.

Other instructors by the above methods go so far as to say that all who can talk may sing, if willing faithfully to devote their time and energy to the cause. This argument holds much encouragement in it, for we all acknowledge that the charm of music is universal. It hushes the infant to rest; it fosters the home spirit and strengthens family ties; and if we could but understand the true spirit of music it has the most subtle effects upon the moral nature, and is sometimes an invisible agent in forming character to an extent entirely unsuspected by the outside world. We may all agree with that well-wisher to vocalists who writes:

> Since singing is so good a thing,
> I would that all could learn to sing!

OUT OF THE HEART OF WINTER.

BY CLINTON SCOLLARD.

OUT of the heart of winter hear my cry,
O vernal goddess of the violet eyes!
Loosen a little these frost-forged bonds
With hope's warm sunlight, so that I may bear,
Soul-steadfast, the succession of the days
Until thy coming! Would that now thy feet,
Sandaled with green, pressed soft upon the hills,
Would that the low persuasion of thy voice
Were winning back the leaf upon the bough,
And the sky, sweet forerunners of the rose!

Hark! the wind-spirits of the gracious South
Across the solemn snow-leagues bring me word:
"O spring's most constant lover," they entreat,
"Forsake thou not her altars, for the hour
That shall reveal her glory wings apace,
A boon, a blessing, a beatitude."
Thus speak her herald-harbingers, and I,
Who ever am enamored of the spring,
Possess my soul in peace, and wait for her.

CURRENT HISTORY AND OPINION.*

ALPHONSE DAUDET.

ALPHONSE DAUDET.

THE death of Alphonse Daudet, the celebrated French novelist, occurred very suddenly in Paris December 16, being due to an attack of syncope. Daudet was a Provençal by birth, having been born in Nimes in 1840, where he spent his childhood, in great poverty and unhappiness, until his family removed to Lyons. Here he attended the Lyceum, where he studied little, but read and wrote a great deal. After a year's miserable experience as usher in a school at Alais, which later formed the subject of a series of papers to *Figaro*, he joined his brother in Paris. Here he led a life of poverty and bohemianism, depicted in "Le Petit Chose" (1868), until the Duke de Morny became his patron and employed him as his private secretary. His first book was a collection of poems, "Les Amoureuses" (1858), which brought him into public notice and secured him work on several newspapers. In 1859 his health compelled him to go to Algeria, which he visited often in later life. After the publication of a second volume of poems, "La Double Conversion," he abandoned poetry and turned to the drama, producing seven plays in the decade from 1862–72. He wrote in all nine dramas and assisted in dramatizing most of his novels, but none achieved great popularity with the exception of "Sapho," which was also very successfully brought out as an opera only a few days before his death. With the publication of "Lettres de mon Moulin" (1869) Daudet established his reputation as the greatest master of the short story, and after the appearance of "Fromont Jeune et Risler Aîné," by which he signalized his return to novel-writing, and to which the French Academy awarded the Jouy prize in 1875, a new book by Daudet became an event. The novels which followed number thirteen, including the Tartarin series. The first four, "Jack," "Le Nebab," "Les Rois en Exil," and "Numa Roumestan," are social studies in which many of the characters were well-known Parisians thinly disguised. Of the remaining "L'Immortel" is the most unique, being a sharp satire on the French Academy, offensive and unjust, but brilliant and racy. The three of which Tartarin is the hero are delightful romances of life in Southern France, and are perhaps those by which Daudet is best known in this country. His wife, whom he married in 1867, and his son Léon survive him, both of whom are writers of merit.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Daudet had a geniality of soul which entered into his work. He never could have been content with the strictly literary triumphs which satisfied his comrades. Life, after all, was a matter of lively importance to him; here the racy emotions of the Gascon came into play, and the long list of his novels and shorter pieces, of his poems and journalistic writings, is a catalogue of living impressions. . . . In "Tartarin" Alphonse Daudet created an immortal character and gave to the world an inexhaustible source of purest merriment.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

He was both wit and humorist, and his love of the grotesque and the ludicrous was so largely developed that he has often been called the "French Dickens." But his style was French and epigrammatic and polished, as the style of Dickens was not. He was one of the master story-tellers of the nineteenth century, not soon to be forgotten where literature is known.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

It is to the "Tartarin de Tarascon" series and to the "Letters from My Mill" that most of his readers will turn most fondly. There they will breathe again the warm perfume of Southern France, bask in memories of Provençal sunshine, be poets with Mistral, and sight the blue of Algeria's skies. Tartarin is an undying type.

The Sun. (New York, N. Y.)

Another name is now added to the list of holders of the celebrated forty-first seat in the French Academy. Daudet had undeniable talent of a very high character and wrote some things that will live. His death makes a large gap in the small body of men still able to practice the rapidly disappearing art of writing in the French language.

* This department, together with the book "The Social Spirit in America," constitutes a special C. L. S. C. course, for the reading of which a seal is given.

EUROPEAN ESTIMATES OF OUR COMMERCIAL STRENGTH.

THE growing fear of the result upon European development of American competition in commerce has found expression during the past few weeks in four notable speeches in as many countries. Hon. G. W. Ross, minister of education in the Canadian cabinet, declares that Canadian investments and trade relations are seriously interfered with by the frequent changes in our tariff and complains of the great disproportion between Canada's exports of food products and those of the United States to England. Hon. C. T. Ritchie, president of the British Board of Trade, attributes the decline in our imports from Great Britain to the Dingley tariff and the long-standing engineering strike in London, but considers us, in any case, a more serious competitor than Germany, citing as instances of our encroachment upon England's commercial territory the contract for the Central Underground Railway in London and other important orders on the Continent and in Egypt and Japan. Herr Hammacher, a National Liberal member of the German Reichstag, goes still further in his declaration that the other American republics are ready to join the United States in a customs union and that Pan-Americanism will soon be a power more formidable to Germany than Monroeism. The climax was reached in a speech made by Count Galuchowski, the Austrian minister for foreign affairs, before the Austrian and Hungarian delegations, in which he maintains that we are on the verge of an economic war, in which the European states will have to combine to support each other against the power of America. He says: "The destructive competition with transoceanic countries, which has partly to be carried on at present and partly to be expected in the immediate future, requires prompt and thorough counteracting measures if vital interests of the peoples of Europe are not to be gravely compromised. They must fight shoulder to shoulder against the common danger, and must arm themselves for the struggle with all the means at their disposal."

The Manufacturer. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The United States, if it keeps in its sane mind, will not antagonize all Europe, or all Asia, or all Africa. It has no desire to antagonize any nation. Our task, as Lord Salisbury, in his recent Guildhall speech, said England's was, is "to throw open as many markets as possible and to bring together as many consumers and producers as possible." There is no war or strategy, or jingoism or international hate, in such a program as this. If we continue to go forward it will be by the exercise of intelligence and skill, and it will be because we deserve to go forward.

The Evening Post. (New York, N. Y.)

The alarm of Count Goluchowski about the competition of America in the European markets, and his call on England to unite with Europe against America and Japan, is a fresh illustration of the odd notions about trade which still lurk in the heads of statesmen of the old school. No nation can ruin another with goods. It may undersell certain manufactures and damage certain industries; but it cannot ruin trade. Trade would be ruined by the foreign nation ceasing to buy—in other words, by the loss of his market by the native trader; and he would then go home, and withdraw his goods as soon as he found the demand diminishing. The way nearly all nations are fighting against the reception of foreign goods, and for the sale of their own abroad, is one of the great absurdities of human history.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The idea of joining all the diversified races and various political ambitions of Europe in a commercial union, of making business partners of deadly rivals, could only occur to a statesman frightened by the increasing danger of a fearful war growing out of trade competition in all corners of the world. It is fear of each other more than fear of the United States that leads European governments to plead desperately for the union for which Lord Salisbury declared he hoped—the welding of the powers "in some international constitution which shall give to the world, as a result of their great strength, a long spell of unfettered and prosperous trade and continued peace." As well might he hope for a peaceful union of fire and gunpowder.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The situation is one which calls for a speedy increase of our defenses. There is no danger that this country will become aggressive, no matter what our power may be, but we ought to be able to defend ourselves, as readiness for war is one of the chief guaranties of peace. In the meantime our manufacturers and merchants should heartily unite to hold the advantages we have already gained in trade and manufactures.

The News. (Denver, Col.)

Strangely enough, the silver question is becoming mixed up in this discussion. An authority quoted by the London *Times* asserts that "the adoption of the silver dollar as the standard coin from the north pole to Patagonia would be a powerful lever in the realization of the Pan-American program of the politicians of the United States." The language is both significant and suggestive. It is an assertion by competent European authority that if the United States should readopt bimetalism and reopen the mints to silver the republic would establish a world-wide commercial supremacy.

POSTAL SAVINGS BANKS.

SEVERAL of the postmasters-general of the United States have recommended the establishment of postal savings banks, and now the present incumbent, Postmaster-General Gary, has in his annual report expressed himself in favor of such an institution. The fact that the introduction of the money-order system has been so successful he has used as an argument in favor of postal-banking privileges, and he suggests that the government could safely invest the deposits in public buildings. Objectors urge in opposition to the plan the incompetence of many postmasters in rural districts and the improbability of establishing the postal banks where they are most needed. Some are also afraid the government would not be able to pay the proposed two per cent interest on deposits without assessing a tax on the people for the purpose. Not only is there opposition to the plan in different sections of the Union, especially in New England, but opposition is anticipated in Congress, where several bills relating to the question have already been introduced. A discussion of this subject was published in THE CHAUTAUQUAN for January.

POSTMASTER-GENERAL GARY.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

It would naturally happen, if the plan for the establishment of postal savings banks were to be adopted, that the places selected for the banks would be those where there are not now any institutions of the kind. The very fact that under the Lorimer Bill the interest to be paid on deposits is limited to two per cent is in itself a sufficient guaranty that the new banks would not displace those already existing in New England. An objection to the postal savings bank proposition—that it seems to contemplate an indefinite continuance of the national debt—is met by the provision in the Lorimer Bill, by which authority is given the secretary of the treasury, under certain restrictions, to invest the deposits, not only in national bonds or those the principal of which is guaranteed by the United States, but in state bonds and bonds of municipalities and counties.

Kansas Capital. (Topeka, Kan.)

The strongest thing that has been said in favor of government savings banks is attributed to President McKinley, who is reported to have said in conversation on this subject with a prominent post-office official that the establishment of the system would tend to increase patriotism in that every depositor would feel a more personal interest in the government if it were the custodian of his savings. This is the best argument that champions of the postal savings bank for this country have been able to draw forward, and it is sound and convincing.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

The people are inclined to think they would like the system, but they want more information before deciding. The popular mind being in this condition, the part of Comptroller Eckels' official report which bears on this question is of special value. Mr. Eckels gives the following table, which shows the growth of the system in the countries where postal savings banks are in operation:

	No. of depositors.	Deposits.	Average deposits.
United Kingdom	6,453,957	$489,344,875	$75 82
France	2,488,075	150,691,705	60 56
Italy	2,896,768	89,724,465	30 98
Australasia	474,635	70,038,925	147 56
Belgium	882,370	63,693,274	72 18
Austria—			
Savings dept	1,110,091	22,124,156	19 93
Banking dept	28,363	27,270,964	961 50
Hungary—			
Savings dept	276,565	5,429,098	19 63
Banking dept	3,767	3,634,108	964 72
Canada	125,353	29,252,784	233 36
India	653,892	28,413,460	43 45
Netherlands	499,963	18,557,651	37 12
Sweden	408,288	10,696,745	26 20
Cape Colony	43,672	7,675,270	175 75
Totals	16,345,759	$1,016,547,480	$62 19

This, in a nutshell, is the available information regarding postal savings banks where they are in operation. The fact that they are popular wherever they have been introduced and have worked successfully and profitably both to the government and to the patrons is a strong argument in their favor.

THE FIRST MAYOR OF GREATER NEW YORK.

ROBERT A. VAN WYCK.
First Mayor of Greater New York.

AT noon on January 1 Robert A. Van Wyck was installed as the first mayor of Greater New York, now the second city of the world. The ceremonies incident to the occasion were brief, simple, and unostentatious. The salary of the mayor is $15,000 per year and about $33,000,000 will be paid annually by his administration in salaries to the employees of the Greater New York. The enormous responsibility with which the new government is charged is further evidenced by the published estimates, which indicate that it will expend in moneys raised by taxation about $258,000,000 in four years, while the improvements already contracted for and in contemplation will make necessary the further expenditure of about $200,000,000 during the same period. At the head of the great city's affairs during the next four years will be Mayor Van Wyck, whose personality, focused by the responsibilities of one of the greatest trusts in modern government, is of more than passing interest. The following sympathetic accounts of the chief executive of Greater New York sketch the man rather than the official whose future public service will be of large account.

(Ind.) New York Herald. (N. Y.)

The ancestors of Robert A. Van Wyck were Dutch. Like all Dutchmen, they were solid, stolid, and unimpressionable. Their names have been interwoven in the history of New York from 1637 down to the present day.

The Van Wycks were socially on a par with the Stuyvesants, Kips, Stryckers, Van Dycks, and Bogarduses. Their name was emblazoned on the panels of the old Dutch Church among the names of the Roosevelts, Lotts, and Bogarts. They were prominent among the American patriots in the Revolution—not rash and impetuous, but conservative and deliberative, advocating unity and concert of action among the colonies before overt acts were committed. After the Revolution they preferred Jefferson to Hamilton, and stood at the side of De Witt Clinton in his warfare for the welfare of the state. Such is the strain of blood running in the veins of Robert A. Van Wyck. He inherits the traits of his ancestry, enlivened by an infusion of Celtic blood away back in his maternal ancestors. And this blood was filtered through generations of South Carolinians. To it is due his physical alertness, his love of wit, and his generous disposition. While he carries Dutch impassiveness in his face, figure, and nature, he is neither sluggard nor phlegmatic in character or disposition. No man more readily responds to a charitable impulse or is more quick to relieve want and destitution. Robert A. Van Wyck is neither a money-maker nor a money-lover. Among strangers and others his demeanor is friendly and discreet. Attractive in his personality, those thrown into his company instinctively like him. He has numberless acquaintances. They are to be found in every pathway of life, from the barber's chair to the judge's bench. His silence is not the reticence of restraint, but natural. He is not a quick thinker, but a sure one, and is less liable to have a second thought than most men. He seems to be liberal of everything but his confidence.

The mayor is in his forty-fifth year. He was born in this city. His brother Augustus, now on the bench of the Supreme Court, is much older than Robert, and was born in the South, in the ancestral halls of his mother. She was a woman of superior intellect and of exquisite refinement. Her memory is tenderly cherished by the two surviving sons. From her they inherit a chivalric bearing and an air of reserve. Robert was invariably governed by her advice, even in political matters. Not long after his admission to the bar he was offered a nomination to Congress where a nomination was equivalent to an election. His mother thought it would retard his advancement in his chosen profession and advised him against it. The nomination was promptly declined.

Robert was a member of Tammany Hall in the days of John Kelly. His loyalty to the Democracy was unquestioned, but did not lead him to support Mr. Kelly when he ran for governor against Lucius Robinson. In vehement words he denounced the recreant chieftain and left Tammany Hall, affiliating with the county Democracy. At a meeting of a branch of that organization some years afterward he made a terse speech, favoring a resolution eulogistic of the administration of Mayor Grant. It was bitterly opposed, but Van Wyck's speech carried the organization by storm, and it was adopted. The speech attracted the attention of Richard Croker, the new leader of Tammany, and the speaker was again enrolled as a faithful

adherent. He had seen the futility of any other Democratic organization and willingly returned to the fold.

His nomination for justice of the city court in 1889 was to him even more unexpected than his nomination for mayor in 1897. He had no inkling of the situation until his name was about to be sprung upon the convention. In the succeeding election his popularity carried him far ahead of his ticket. How well he filled his place upon the bench the record shows. His preference this year was a nomination for the Supreme Court. Mr. Van Wyck, unlike his Dutch ancestors, is a strong Episcopalian. His mother's family were of that persuasion. He attends church regularly.

If he is to be read at all, however, it is not by what he says, but by what he does. He has strong individuality, with great will power and the ability to keep his own counsel. His sympathies are decidedly with the masses.

Although devoted to the study of the law, he is abreast of the literature of the day. The magazines are carefully perused, and he is a persistent reader of newspapers. The mayor owns a small brownstone front on Forty-sixth Street, near Lexington Avenue. He has bachelor apartments on the second floor. They are cosy and neat and tastefully furnished. He has a choice law library and a careful selection in general literature. In these rooms he has written the most of his decisions. Stern and unyielding as a judge, he has always been strictly just. It has been said that none of his decisions was ever reversed. This is not true. He lays no claim to infallibility, and is satisfied to stand on a par with his associates on the bench.

(Rep.) The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

Mayor Robert A. Van Wyck is a native of Manhattan Island, N. Y. He is the son of a lawyer and jurist distinguished in the community half a century ago, who was also, like the son, a Democrat. The father's position was such as not to make it necessary for the son to earn his living before he became of age, but being of an independent disposition he determined to maintain himself at the earliest possible moment, and so when only twelve years old, in 1862, he found employment as an errand boy with a down-town firm. Here he worked himself up into a clerkship, but soon resumed his studies. He was graduated from Columbia College Law School in 1872, and was chosen as its valedictorian at the commencement.

He was first elected a judge of the city court when he was thirty-nine years old. He has always been a studious lawyer and an enthusiastic Democrat. His associates on the bench of the city court chose him unanimously to preside there. He was serving his second term as judge when he was nominated for mayor. All his life he has been a most democratic citizen. Any one who has had business with him has never found any difficulty in getting into his presence. During his stay at the City Hall the latch-string will be out to the people of the big city. He will devote all of his time to the duties of his office, and he expects all of his appointees to imitate his example. In order that an impression which certain sensational papers have created may be rectified, it might be well to state that Robert A. Van Wyck is the most abstemious of men. He carries temperance almost to the degree of total abstinence.

THE DREYFUS CASE.

THE main incidents in the Dreyfus case as they occurred about three years ago are as follows: Upon information given to the French minister of war, Captain Dreyfus, of the French army, a Jew and an Alsatian, was arrested for divulging important military secrets to a foreign government, namely Germany. A trial by court-martial followed, in which the witnesses for the defense were not called upon to testify and the evidence submitted has never been published. The captain was convicted by the testimony of two experts in graphology and banished for life to a penal island off the coast of French Guiana, where he was placed in an iron cage and guarded by sentinels who are not allowed to speak in his presence. Since this trial the friends of Captain Dreyfus have attempted to have this sentence revoked. Now M. Scheurer-Kestner, a vice-president of the Senate, who has become interested in the case, asks for a new trial on the ground that he has proof of the innocence of Dreyfus. Members of the Dreyfus family inculpate Major Esterhazy, who denies the charges made against him and requests an investigation. These charges and countercharges have aroused a strong feeling of doubt in regard to the guilt of Dreyfus.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

The net result or tendency thus far is, no doubt, to strengthen the wide-spread suspicion that the young officer may have been unjustly condemned. This suspicion may be ill-founded. But it unquestionably exists, and appears to be warranted by most of the circumstances of the case that have been made public. The lack of adequate motive on his part, the insanely violent prejudice against the race and religion to which he belongs, his own bearing throughout the trial and degradation, and the peculiar conduct of others who might easily be interested in making him a scapegoat, all point in that direction. To these must be added the fact

that the sole alleged evidence against him, so far as not only the public knows, but so far as he and his counsel were informed, was a bit of unsigned manuscript in a disguised handwriting. Certainly it does not seem unreasonable to ask if he were not possibly the victim of another's evil-doing and of the infamous Jew-baiting mania.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It seems to be certain that there was a conspiracy of some kind, and that Esterhazy, who has since acted such a contemptible and cowardly part, had a hand in it. It may be, too, that the offense which Dreyfus was charged with having committed was not committed at all, that the documents which have been produced were forged, and that no information was ever furnished to Germany.

The Chicago Record. (Ill.)

It is evident that French opinion is undergoing a change, and that if men like M. Scheurer-Kestner continue to declare that they have proofs of the prisoner's innocence popular sentiment will force some action on the part of those who are keeping Dreyfus in exile. Should it actually be shown that the degraded officer is innocent he would be restored to full rank with as much sensational publicity as attended his disgrace, and the ovation which the mercurial French public would tender him no doubt would be extravagantly enthusiastic and adulatory.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

Dreyfus evidently got what he deserved, and he should be punished. The spectacle of an American officer selling the plans of our fortifications along the coast would call forth the liveliest indignation, and it would end in the officer's being court-martialed and punished. There is not a bit of difference between this supposititious case and that in which Dreyfus was the chief offender.

THE SECOND CITY OF THE WORLD.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

NEARLY thirty years ago, the first proposition was set down in black and white for the consolidation of the districts which are now united in one vast city, the greatest in the New World and, next to London, the largest in the world. The population of London, according to recent figures, is 4,463,169. That of the new city of New York is 3,388,771, distributed as follows: borough of Manhattan, 1,884,436; Brooklyn, 1,180,000; the Bronx, 135,116; Queens, 125,201; Richmond, 64,018. Paris is a big city, but it has only 2,511,629 inhabitants, while the population of Berlin is not much in excess of 1,725,000. In area New York is the greatest of the four, having 196,800 acres, to 74,672 for London, while Paris and Berlin have respectively only 19,279 and 15,662 acres.

As the old New York was the greatest city of the United States, the new New York will in many other respects than population and area rival the metropolis of the British Empire. Her location on the finest harbor on the North Atlantic coast will continue to be the controlling factor in her splendid growth in wealth and population. The water-front of London is about sixty miles in extent, much of it unavailable for large shipping; while the water-frontage of the larger New York is 353 miles, almost all of it being practicable for docking purposes. To this port the transatlantic passenger lines send their finest and swiftest steamers, and the steamships and sailing vessels of many other companies have New York as their western terminus. The canals, too, bring their freights of breadstuffs and other staples to this port from the interior, and all the important railroads of the East and all the coastwise steamship lines make New York their terminal point.

As a financial center New York is believed to be second only to London. Practically every great interest in the United States has at least a resident officer in New York, and Wall Street is the financial barometer of the country.

In facilities for rapid transit the new city is behind London, which has long had an extensive system of underground lines, similar to the projected road which the old New York has voted to build. Yet New York is not by any means hopelessly inferior to London even in this respect, for she has a great network of elevated roads and trolley surface lines, notably in the boroughs of Manhattan and Brooklyn. The Brooklyn Bridge and the ferries will before many years be supplemented by other bridges across the East River and by a tunnel under that stream.

The tenth ward of old New York has a population of 413,000 to the square mile, the densest in any city of the world; the population of the Whitechapel District of London is 393,000 to the square mile.

Greater New York has a police force of 7,725 members, while London has 16,000.

New York has 1,198 places of worship to London's 1,410.

New York has 720 newspapers and periodicals: London, 412.

New York daily consumes 25,000,000 more gallons of water than London.

London has a birth every three minutes and a death every five. New York has a birth every nine minutes and a death every ten and a half.

In London one out of each sixteen inhabitants seeks relief through public charity, while similar aid is sought in New York by one person out of each two hundred.

Besides her commercial and financial prominence the enlarged New York is by far the most extensive manufacturing city of the United States. Its public school system, too, is a source of justifiable pride as to the number of schools and their excellence. Here, too, will soon be built one of the most important libraries in the world; and here are Columbia University and many professional schools.

The old city of New York surpassed all the other cities in valuation of property, in the amount raised by taxation, and in the sums spent as operating expenses and for improvements. To its great totals are now to be added the amounts to be raised by the borough of Brooklyn, a city of 1,180,000 inhabitants, and to be expended there; and the revenues and disbursements on account of the remaining boroughs of the greater city. The colossal resources of the whole city are $2,367,659,607 of real estate and $404,001,063 of personal property.

The new charter empowers the administration which now controls the city to expend vast sums for public improvements, the total which will be disbursed under Mayor Van Wyck being estimated at $200,000,000. The salaries of city officials for the four years will swell this amount to $332,000,000, and this does not include the payments for state taxes and the expense, exclusive of salaries, of administering the city government.

This estimated yearly expenditure of $33,000,000 for salaries and $50,000,000 for public improvement—$83,000,000—surpasses by nearly $30,000,000 the revenue of the kingdom of Portugal for 1896–97. The combined budgets of Norway and Sweden for the same year were only about $48,000,000. The revenue of the Netherlands in that period was only $55,000,000. The revenues of Bulgaria and Rumania together were not much over $50,000,000. Belgium's revenue in 1895 was a trifle less than $75,000,000, with nearly equal expenditure. And the sum to be raised in a single year in New York will exceed the yearly revenues of three or four of the South American republics taken together.

ENGLAND'S WAR IN INDIA.

THE revolt which broke out a few months ago among the tribes of the northwestern frontier of India has acquired an unanticipated magnitude. With a large army Gen. Sir William Lockhart, the British commander-in-chief, has been unable to rout the Afridis from their strongholds among the hills. There have been almost daily skirmishes, with loss of soldiers and officers on both sides, but the most desperate fighting since that at Dargai Ridge occurred during the raid made by General Westmacott's brigade down the Bara Valley. The failure to conquer these tribes of the hills has produced in England a decided decrease in the demand for a forward policy in India. Recent reports state that there is to be a cessation of hostilities until the opening of spring, and that the Afridis are assembling for the purpose of considering peace measures.

The Providence Journal. (R. I.)

Afraid to invade the Khyber district with even the strong forces in the field at his disposal, the commander now retires for some months, leaving the rebels in complete control of their original positions. A few accessible tribes have been penalized, but the effect of the escape of others from the punitive expedition is expected to be reflected in the continued surliness of the humbled districts. Modern artillery has not sufficed to beat down the barriers of rocks, crowned by men with rifles, which have confronted the advancing parties. . . . . In the circumstances it is not surprising that the people of Great Britain are dividing into a "forward party" and an opposition regarding the Indian policy on the northwestern frontier. A large number of the queen's subjects assert that the scientific line should be projected northward and westward until the ameer of Afghanistan is a British dependent; until, in fact, the Russian boundary separates India from the czar's dominions. Others insist that the enactment of this policy will be effected at too great a cost of life and treasure. Even the forward party is depressed, however, by what has occurred. For the first time in the history of the British army in India that body of organized troops finds itself opposed by physical conditions which discourage it. The forcing backward of a lot of knavish and fanatical tribesmen is now understood among the Afridis to be a task of which the British army is not readily capable. It can be done in time, but at a severe loss. Yet the question is whether the expenditure of blood and gold will be worth while. As an obstacle to Russian aggressiveness it would be of great value in the future. But simply as a means of disciplining mountain rebels it is thought unwise. Modern arms in the hands of the natives are too powerful a factor against civilization to be lightly dismissed.

HAWAIIAN ANNEXATION.

THE friends of the plan to make Hawaii a part of the United States seem confident that during the present session of Congress action will be taken which will effect annexation. Investigation shows that nearly two thirds of the Senate favor the treaty of annexation submitted to that body by President McKinley in June. If this treaty should be adopted the United States would exercise complete sovereignty over the islands. The treaty also provides for the organization of a territory with a local legislature, the power of veto to be held by the president of the United States; the substitution of United States treaties for those of Hawaii; the prohibition of Chinese immigration; the assumption of a debt of $4,000,000 by the United States; and a commission composed of three Americans and two Hawaiians to draw up a plan of local government. Japan through her minister, Toru Hoshi, has withdrawn her protest against annexation, but many in the United States are still opposed to the project. It is reported that the advocates of annexation desire its consideration in executive session of the Senate, that the delicate questions involved may not be made public.

The Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

The opponents of annexation have already exploited their objections in the public prints and we know about the line of argument they will pursue. Very briefly summarized, these objections may be presented as follows: first, that only a small minority of the inhabitants of the islands desire annexation, and, therefore, it would be an outrage to impose a government upon a people without the consent of the governed; second, that the Chinese and Japanese coolie laborers must either be allowed the privilege of full citizenship or else be kept in the condition of semi-serfdom now in vogue—either of which is antagonistic to a democratic government; third, that local self-government means that an ignorant and irresponsible people will have it in their power to make all sorts of trouble for the United States; fourth, that Hawaii cannot be kept from statehood very long, with our political parties forever and bitterly competing for the control of Congress; fifth, that immense sums of money will be needed to fortify and preserve an American settlement two thousand miles away from the nearest American shore; sixth, that it is not the policy of the government to enlarge its territory by annexation.

The Literary Digest. (New York, N. Y.)

In "A Handbook on the Annexation of Hawaii," by ex-Minister Lorrin A. Thurston, one of the negotiators of the pending treaty, five principal reasons for annexation are elaborated: first, it will prevent the establishment of an alien and possibly hostile stronghold in a position commanding the Pacific coast and the commerce of the North Pacific, and definitely and finally secure to the United States the strategical control of the North Pacific, thereby protecting its Pacific coast and commerce from attack; second, the conditions are such that the United States must act *now* to preserve the results of its past policy, and to prevent the dominancy in Hawaii of a foreign people; third, it will increase many fold and secure to the United States the commerce of the islands; fourth, it will greatly increase and secure to the United States the shipping business of the islands; fifth, it will remove Hawaii from international politics and tend to promote peace and harmony in the Pacific by eliminating an otherwise certain source of international friction.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

No advantages can accrue to the United States that are not obtainable without annexation; but there are many disadvantages. It would cost as much to protect Hawaii as to guard the entire coastline of the United States. The islands would become a favorite field for setting up pocket states, and there would be the greatest difficulty in framing general laws, particularly tariff acts fitted to the needs of both this country and Hawaii. There is no good reason why the United States should not maintain the most cordial relations with the independent republic of Hawaii and derive from such relations every advantage and none of the disadvantages that would surely come from annexation. It already has a fine harbor and coaling station there and can get all else that it wishes by treaty for the mere asking.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

Of course it would be unwise to admit it at once as a sovereign state, because of its vast preponderance of alien population, who are presumably unfit for self-government. But the territorial form of government affords an easy solution of any difficulties that may arise.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

The question of annexation is not whether the government of Queen Liliuokalani was properly overthrown, nor whether the leading advocates of annexation of the islands are Americans or natives. It is a question of what the duty of the United States is with reference to problems of the future in the far East and the part this country may be called upon to play in regard to those problems. If the Hawaiian islands would very greatly strengthen the United States as a naval power in the North Pacific they should be annexed.

KLONDIKE RELIEF.

A BILL appropriating $175,000 for the relief of miners in the Yukon valley was passed by the House December 16. The secretary of war is to have charge of this fund, which is to be used to meet the expense incurred by the purchase, transportation, and distribution of food supplies. According to the provisions of the bill the supplies may be sold to the sufferers, the prices to be fixed by Secretary Alger, or they may be donated to those who are without means to pay for them. Secretary Alger is also empowered to purchase reindeer and secure the services of experienced teamsters who are not citizens of the United States. Dr. Sheldon Jackson, the general agent of education for Alaska, is authorized as a special agent of the War Department to purchase six hundred reindeer in Lapland, and to obtain the requisite number of teamsters from that country. Captain David L. Brainard, of the Subsistence Department of the army, has been commissioned to purchase the necessary provisions for the expedition to Alaska and to superintend their delivery and packing at Dyea. General Merriam, commander of the Department of the Columbia, has been instructed to organize a guard for the expedition, consisting of two officers and fifty men. Through the Canadian minister of the interior, Mr. Sifton, arrangements have been made to secure the assistance of a force of the mounted police of Canada, and probably no duties will be levied on provisions transported by the relief expedition.

Harrisburg Telegraph. (Pa.)

Congress has voted a large sum of money for the relief of the miners who went to the Klondike and are now in distress. Of course these men ought to be helped, but there can be no denial of the fact that they were all warned before they started for the Klondike.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

The appropriation made for the relief of the suffering and imperiled miners of the Klondike region is undoubtedly not too much, in view of all the reports that have come to us as to the condition of affairs in that far northern region. The fact that the money is to be expended under the direction of the War Department is a guaranty that all the plans will be designed and carried out in an intelligent and practical manner. For the department in question has familiarized itself with existing conditions, and has all along kept itself so closely in touch with every movement toward the Klondike that it knows exactly in what direction to work and what are the best means to apply to an alleviation of distress. . . . Of course people who are indifferent to suffering will say that many of the men to whom relief is to be sent are themselves to blame for their condition. But this may also be said of thousands upon thousands of people who find themselves in poverty and who are sick and suffering. The knowledge of that fact does not prevent the building and endowment of hospitals and of the hundreds of other agencies that "soothe and heal and bless." And so, even if it is not directly the function of the government to help men who have fallen by the wayside in the mad rush for wealth, they are our brothers, and they are destitute. That is enough.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

Secretary of War Alger, in expectation that Congress would provide for the relief of the people at Dawson and other points in the valley of the Yukon, has begun preparations to send forward supplies. The amount voted by the House of Representatives—$175,000—is probably sufficient to meet all needs and pay the cost of transportation. It is particularly satisfactory that in the short debate in the House it was recognized that no distinction should be made between American citizens and British subjects, and none between localities, whether on British or on American soil. The sole consideration is that the people in the Yukon valley are in danger of starvation. This justifies the appropriation not only in the minds of the members of Congress, but also with the public. . . . Both branches of Congress appreciate the need of prompt action and public sentiment heartily indorses the measure. The gravity of the situation revealed by this action should be impressed upon all persons who may be thinking of going to the Klondike early next spring. It is estimated that something like 200,000 people will try to reach the Yukon goldfields. While this is undoubtedly an over-estimate, it should be evident to every thoughtful person that if anything like that many people go to the Klondike and Yukon valleys in 1898, the danger of starvation next winter will probably be as great as it is this season.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Canada is willing to act with us in sending supplies to the Klondike miners, and if she would show a like disposition to help us protect the seals it would do her credit.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The authorities at Washington are commendably energetic in preparing to send relief to the distressed Argonauts. Though their present suffering is the result of their own greed and folly it is none the less the duty as well as the instinct of humanity to send them help, whether drawn by reindeer or snow locomotives, and without counting the cost.

EUROPEAN DESIGNS UPON CHINA.

VAGUE and contradictory as the reports from the Orient often are there seems to be no doubt of the fact that Germany has taken permanent possession of Kiao Chou, thus securing a naval station in China. Prince Henry has been sent to the scene of action and in a few months will visit the Chinese emperor, who, it is reported, will receive him as an equal. Other European nations are also actively attentive to their interests in the far East. Russia has entered Port Arthur for the winter and has forced the removal of Mr. J. McLeavy Brown, the English financial adviser of the Korean government. A Russian was appointed to succeed him. Despatches report the seizure of the island of Hainan by the French and the appearance of Great Britain at Port Hamilton Island, accompanied by a Japanese fleet. It is impossible to predict the outcome of these demonstrations, but the consensus of opinion seems to be that the partition of the Chinese Empire among the European nations is about to take place.

Cincinnati Commercial Gazette. (O.)

When Germany's warships seized the port which they now control, and drove the native garrisons from the surrounding forts, some surprise was manifested because Russia, France, and England did not enter a vigorous protest at the action. The reason why such protests were not made is obvious. Russia, France, and England want to do precisely what Germany did, and therefore they assuredly would not object to a step very similar to, if not identical with, moves which they themselves are contemplating. . . . If a combination does exist to partition China, and if the work has already begun, we can be certain that the continental powers of Europe will, if possible, freeze England out of the game.

Kansas City Journal. (Mo.)

Under the circumstances there seems little doubt but that the European occupation of China, or parts of the empire at least, will be permanent, and that it will not be met with even the show of armed resistance. There is much greater probability of conflict among the various outside claimants who will ask a share in the division of spoils. It is quite clear that the Chinese would be better off for the overthrow of the present dynasty, even if such overthrow were brought about at the cost of their so-called independence.

The Philadelphia Record. (Pa.)

That the occupation of Kiao Chou by the German forces is the first step in the partition of the Chinese Empire by Germany and Russia is a fact which finds as swift recognition in Peking as in London. Another fact as clearly demonstrated by the utterances of the London press and by the movements of the British fleet in the far East is that England does not propose to be an indifferent witness of the game of wholesale spoliation. When China advertised her weakness to the world by permitting Japan to whip her she invited the fate which now impends. Considerations of expediency may postpone the ceremony of partition—prefaced, of course, by a great naval show on the part of the allied fleets—but China must go, and her obliteration from the map of Asia may easily be coincident with the dawn of the new century.

Denver Republican. (Col.)

The departure of the German fleet in command of Prince Henry was the occasion of a great deal of spectacular display on the part of the emperor. He delights in such scenes and occasions, and he carefully made the most of this one. The emperor's toast to his brother was significant in its distinct declaration of the intention of Germany to maintain its position on the Chinese coast, and all the more so because it contained a clearly expressed notice to all Europeans. It was a warning to them to keep their hands off and let Germany have its way. So emphatic was the emperor's declaration that there would be no withdrawal from the position taken at Kiao Chou Bay, that it looks as though he had previously obtained some assurance from Russia, if not also from England and France, that there would be no interference with his plans to annex or practically to annex a part of Chinese territory.

Boston Journal. (Mass.)

Ever since Russia assisted in elbowing Japan out of the Leao Tong peninsula, there has been an understanding between Russia and China by which the former was to be given possession of Port Arthur whenever she needed it. When Russia takes Port Arthur, therefore, she only enters into actual possession of what was given her months ago. She acts with the full consent of China.

The Times-Herald. (Chicago, Ill.)

The nations which have most at stake commercially in the oriental grab game are England and Japan. It is significant, too, that the naval forces of these two powers are now cooperating in Korean waters. Both of these nations have commercial interests involved in the Chinese question which justify the liveliest attention, whether territorial partition is undertaken or not.

The Philadelphia Inquirer. (Pa.)

It did at first look as if Japan would be forced to settle her differences with Russia alone, but if Lord Salisbury does not make a retrograde movement, as he has done on other occasions when Russia had to be considered, it does appear as if England and Japan would pit their strength against that of Russia, France, and Germany.

THE DEATH OF COLONEL RUIZ.

HOSTILITIES which have continued in the island of Cuba for a long time are in no way lessened by the killing of Colonel Ruiz. A despatch from Havana dated December 20 says that Colonel Ruiz, after an ineffectual attempt by correspondence to induce Colonel Aranguren to surrender, met him by appointment near Campo Florido and offered terms of peace. In accordance with a proclamation issued by the insurgents to the effect that any Spanish envoy coming to them with offers of autonomy would be shot, Colonel Ruiz was executed. The conflicting reports make it difficult to obtain the exact truth in regard to the affair.

THE LATE COL. JOAQUIN RUIZ.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

It now appears that the errand of Ruiz, as proved by documents upon his person, was to offer to the Cuban leader, Colonel Aranguren, a bribe of $100,000 in cash and a high office in the proposed new administration of Cuba, in return for his desertion of the cause of independence and the acceptance of autonomy. In addition, the proposal involved the corruption of another Cuban officer by Aranguren. . . . The death of Ruiz was not the murder of a herald or the assassination of an envoy. It was the execution of a spy.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Only one excuse for it is offered. It is said that a month ago the Cuban leaders made formal proclamation that they would put to death any Spanish envoy coming to them with offer of autonomy. That would be incredible were the statement made by any others than the Cubans themselves. On their authority it must be believed. Well, that is an excuse that not only, as the French saying has it, accuses, but condemns. That proclamation was a proclamation of outlawry. In making it the Cubans forfeited the right to be recognized as civilized belligerents, and set themselves down as either savages or brigands. It is the more regrettable because the American people have hitherto generally sympathized with the Cubans in their struggle for freedom. But the American people cannot sympathize with organized assassination.

COTTON MANUFACTURING IN THE SOUTH.

THE business of cotton manufacturing in the South has grown so rapidly within recent years that the oldest cotton manufacturing community, New England, has been called upon to adjust its operations in this field to the varying exigencies of the increasing competition. The prevailing conditions are emphasized by the current movement on the part of the New England manufacturers to reduce wages ten per cent, the mill owners of Fall River, Mass., having inaugurated the reduction at the beginning of the new year. It is stated by a committee of experts who recently investigated the conditions incident to the manufacture of cotton goods in the South that the southern wage scale in the cotton-mills is about forty per cent less than that which now obtains in New England, and, in addition to this advantage of cheaper labor, that the legal hours of work are longer in the South than in New England, that there are no labor organizations with which to deal, that coal is less costly, that there is practical freedom from legislative interference, and that the cost of production is materially lessened by the location of mills in close proximity to the cotton fields, thus doing away with freight charges for the transportation of the raw material. The number of cotton-mills in the South has gradually increased within recent years, and owing mainly to the economic advantages to be gained it is to be expected that the movement of this great industry southward will grow with accelerating force. Meanwhile the effect of this sharp competition upon the New England communities where this industry has had its greatest foothold will be watched with no little concern and interest, since it means the accommodation of one of our foremost industries to those social and economic changes which are inevitable in our national experience.

(Dem.) The Times. (Kansas City, Mo.)

In justification of the ten per cent cut in wages ordered as a New Year's gift of Republican prosperity to their employees, the New England cotton-mill owners dolefully set forth the inroads made upon their business by the southern cotton factories. New England's loss of this branch of production will inevitably be followed by similar losses in other lines. New England has no natural advantages for manufacturing except water. Coal has to be hauled from great distances. Food must be transported from other sections. The rigorous climate and thick settlement of the country make the cost of living high. Already far from the fields of raw material, New England is steadily getting further from the center of consumption, which is moving South and West. New England's career as a great manufacturing region is gradually coming to an end. Other and more favored sections are taking New England's industries from her. How far the process will go no one can say, but as yet no end is in sight. She is certain in the next century to suffer a great decline in comparative importance.

(Rep.) The Cleveland Leader. (O.)

A free-trade newspaper, commenting on the recent reduction of wages among the cotton-mill operatives at Fall River, Mass., contends that it furnishes a vindication of the free-trade theory, because the conditions necessitating the reduction of wages have resulted in spite of tariff protection for the cotton-spinning industry. If the free-trade paper were honest, it would say that the conditions at Fall River had been brought about by the unequal competition of cheap labor in the cotton-mills in the South with that in the cotton-mills in the Massachusetts town. Protected from foreign competition, the Fall River manufacturers were enabled to produce goods at a low and constantly decreasing price, and to still pay their employees living wages. For years there was prosperity and contentment at Fall River. It is doubtful if there was a more prosperous industrial community in the United States; but when the cheap and ignorant labor of the South was brought into direct competition with that of New England under different conditions it soon became apparent that such competition would prove ruinous. The only way in which protection is directly responsible for this condition of affairs is that protection afforded the opportunity for building up the cotton-spinning industry in the United States. But for protection we would have continued to buy our cotton goods from England, and, of course, there would have been no cotton-spinners at Fall River to suffer a reduction of wages. That is about the only way in which the free-trade theory has been vindicated.

(Dem.) The Constitution. (Atlanta, Ga.)

It is queer that the mill managers and the editors do not perceive that the reduction of wages will not help matters. If the trouble is southern competition, there is but one way to meet it, and that is to transfer their plants to this section and secure the advantages to be found here, which are by no means confined to cheap wages.

CURFEW LEGISLATION.

PUBLIC sentiment appears to be slowly but steadily endorsing the wisdom of the movement inaugurated by the Boys' and Girls' Home Employment Association in 1894 to put a check upon the increase of youthful criminals. This movement, known as the "curfew ordinance," is now in force in over three hundred towns and cities, mostly in the middle West. Of the larger cities which have adopted it are Omaha, Denver, Pueblo, Kansas City, Des Moines, Topeka, Leavenworth, St. Joseph (Mo.), Quincy, Evanston (Ill.), and recently Indianapolis, the meeting-place of the eighth annual session of the association in December. The ordinance requires all children under fifteen, not accompanied by parents or guardians, or not absent with leave, to be at home at nine o'clock in summer and eight o'clock in winter. With few exceptions it has met with the warm commendation of city officials and the cordial support of parents, being easily enforced and effecting a great improvement in the youth of the cities where it is in operation. It is said that the ordinance is still in force in Salem, Mass., having come down from Puritan times.

The Tribune. (Minneapolis, Minn.)

Concerning the operation of the ordinance in Lincoln [Neb.], Mayor Graham reports that it was a complete surprise, both to the police and parents; that there was a decrease of seventy-five per cent in the arrests of youths during the first month; that no increase of the police force was necessary, but on the contrary there was a pecuniary saving from the falling off in the number of arrests. A decided improvement of the youth of the city, socially and morally, is also noted. Superintendent Mallalieu, of the Nebraska Reform School, testifies that there has been a decrease in commitments of delinquents to that school from places where the ordinance is enforced, and Samuel M. Melick, chief of police of Lincoln, says: "Teachers in the public schools say that since curfew went in force boys who formerly kept late hours on the street at night, and were behind in their studies, under curfew come regularly, are punctual and mentally re-

freshed, and up with their studies." The chief of police of St. Joseph, Mo., writes: "After seven months of enforcement of the curfew ordinance, I beg leave to inform you that it has proved an unqualified success, and at the present time I am safe in saying that at least seven eighths of the people of this city give it their sincere and cordial approval and support. It has been instrumental in keeping hundreds of children off the street and away from public places at night who previous to the passage and enforcement of the curfew were accustomed to run at will at all hours of the night. There has been a reduction of fully fifty per cent in commitments to the reform school from St. Joseph since the enactment of the curfew ordinance." The mayor of North Platte, Neb., says that for two years before passing the ordinance fourteen boys and girls were sent to the reform school from that place, and for two years since its enforcement none have been sent. The chief of police of Omaha says that there has been no occasion to make arrests under the provisions of the ordinance since it has been in force. The chief of police of Denver gives substantially the same testimony. The mayor of Des Moines is enthusiastic in his praise of the law; says there have been few arrests under it, but the effect has been all that could be desired. These reports will be very gratifying to the association which first conceived and recommended the ordinance. The larger cities are inclined to reject it as savoring too much of rural simplicity; but if it works so well in the smaller places it will not be many years before the adoption of some regulation of this kind is likely to become well-nigh universal.

CHARLES BUTLER, LL. D.

A CAREER of nearly a century's duration was ended by the death of Mr. Charles Butler on December 13, at his home in New York. He was descended from a distinguished Irish family, his early life being spent in his native town of Kinderhook, where he was educated. After graduation at an academy he studied law in the office of Martin Van Buren, then attorney-general of New York and afterward president, with whom his brother Benjamin was in partnership. In 1824 he was admitted to the bar and soon rose to distinction in his profession, beginning his career in Geneva. In 1835 he removed to New York, where he made his home until the time of his death. He was one of the founders of the Half-Orphan Asylum and of the Union Theological Seminary, in which he endowed a chair of biblical theology, and was one of the council of the New York University. He received the degree of LL.D. from Wabash University in 1853, and later from the New York University. One daughter survives him.

CHARLES BUTLER.

New York Tribune. (N. Y.)

Charles Butler lived nearly a hundred years. He had attained distinction in a great profession. He had amassed an ample fortune. He had assisted conspicuously and efficiently in founding several institutions of national beneficence, and for more than threescore years had devoted time, labor, knowledge, and money without stint to the strengthening of their foundations and the extension of their good works. He had been for longer than two average lifetimes an exemplary Christian, a loyal citizen, a kindly neighbor, an honest man, and in every relationship, public and private, had borne "the white flower of a blameless life." And he died in peace and honor.

On his operations as a lawyer and business man, on his work for the orphan asylum which he helped to found, on his doings for the great theological school of which he was a founder and for more than sixty years a stanch supporter, on his share in building up the patriotic club with which he was similiarly associated, on his neighborly kindnesses to the suburban village where he made his summer home—on each of these and of a dozen other features of his life a chapter might be written. But, most of all, the mind turns to his connection with the New York University, of which in youth he was one of the earliest patrons and to which he gave the latest thoughts and energies of his venerable age. He was conspicuous among those clear-sighted men who, far in advance of the spirit of that age and of all possibilities of immediate realization, conceived and fixed the ideals of that institution on true university lines, at a time when a true university existed in this country only as a dream.

FEDERAL QUARANTINE LEGISLATION.

To the recent epidemic of yellow fever in the South is due the renewed interest which attaches to the proposed reform of our quarantine regulations. The recommendation conveyed by the president's message that the national quarantine regulations be made paramount has lately been followed by the introduction of a bill in the federal legislature by Senator Caffery of Louisiana which carries out the president's precise suggestion. It would have the federal quarantine laws supersede all state and local quarantine regulations and vest in the president authority to control the operation of railroads and the movements of vessels and persons in districts declared to be subject to quarantine restrictions. The law now in force provides that the Marine Hospital Service shall aid in the enforcement of local quarantine regulations but it in no sense contemplates a coordinated and centralized system. While the plan to have the federal government exercise quarantine powers exclusively has provoked much opposition which in the end may bring about its defeat, it is not unlikely that some desired reform, if less radical in character, will result from the present agitation of the subject.

The Mail and Express. (New York, N. Y.)

The time is particularly appropriate for legislation on this question. The utter inefficiency of state and local quarantine regulations has been forcibly demonstrated by the harsh and costly experience of the fever-stricken districts. In view of the results of this recent object-lesson—involving some 4,000 cases of epidemic disease and 400 deaths chargeable to it—there should be no serious objection to the enactment of a national quarantine law to take the place of the inconsistent, antiquated, and dangerous methods now in vogue.

Atlanta Constitution. (Ga.)

This is not in any sense a movement in behalf of paternal government. Quarantine regulations, to be of any service, must reach beyond state lines, and be carried out by a power stronger than any one state can wield. In short, successful quarantine regulations involve the authority that can only be employed by the general government, such as is already manifested in the regulations of interstate commerce. Millions of dollars would have been saved to the South last summer if a national quarantine system had been in operation. We repeat here what we have said on former occasions. No system of national quarantine, no matter how thorough, can prove effective so long as the yellow plague is allowed to breed at our very doors. Even national quarantine cannot keep away from our southern coasts the contagion that flies in the air or creeps in on the sluggish West Indian fogs blown inland. Quarantine does not prevent the spread of yellow fever in a climate where the conditions are ripe for it, and we cannot keep the germs away from our coasts so long as the fever is allowed to breed and grow in Cuba, where it exists from year's end to year's end. We must be able to root it out and destroy it in its breeding grounds. It must be stamped out of Havana and other Cuban ports before a quarantine can prove effective. Otherwise we shall have very costly labor for our pains.

Chattanooga Times. (Tenn.)

The objections to the Caffery Bill will come from hide-bound adherents to the doctrine of state rights, some of whom, apparently, would rather die of cholera or yellow fever than enjoy the protection of a national quarantine. Such objections, however, should not be allowed to operate to the prejudice of the country in general. If the federal government has not the power to safeguard public health it ought to go out of business altogether. The main trouble we had this year was with the interior and not the coast quarantines. The latter, after letting the malady secure a landing, sat down supine and died or lived, as chance provided, but the interior was alive to the peril, and each town, village, and neighborhood on a railroad or navigable river proceeded to protect itself in its own way. The South, by a very large majority, will take chances on preserving the liberties of its people, if the federal government shall take control of all quarantine measures and appliances, internal and external, on the coast and inland. As we hint, a civilized method of handling the business is most needed in the interior.

Public Ledger. (Philadelphia, Pa.)

The public are not contentious as to the precise sanitary methods by which the country at large shall be protected against the incursions of disease. The plan of federal supervision of the subject outlined in the Caffery Bill, if objectionable to the sanitary experts and experienced health authorities to the country, should be displaced by a measure in whose support these authorities can unite. Whether the federal authority should act of its own motion and exclusively when necessary, as provided for in the Caffery Bill, or only upon request of the local health authorities, and in cooperation with them, raises an important question. It is wise to encourage self-help in sanitary measures, yet Congress should legislate on this subject to the end that the country may have prompt prohibition in case local authorities, through inertia, parsimony, or ignorance, fail to adopt measures to stamp out contagion. . . . The cordon of quarantine protection should have no weak places anywhere if it can be avoided. Our chain of quarantine defense is no stronger than its weakest link.

SUMMARY OF NEWS.

HOME.

December 7. The Illinois state legislature assemble in special session at Springfield.

December 8. The American Forestry Association holds its sixteenth annual meeting in Washington.

December 9. The Louisiana Democratic State Convention meets at Baton Rouge to nominate thirty-six candidates for delegates-at-large to the constitutional convention in New Orleans in February.——New vessels of the revenue cutter service will hereafter be named after Indian tribes.——December wheat sells in Chicago at $1.09 a bushel, the highest price since 1891.

December 12. Prof. William R. Brooks of Smith Observatory reports the observation of a great group of sun-spots approaching the center of the sun's disk; the group is visible to the naked eye through smoked glass; measurements made by Professor Brooks show this vast solar disturbance to be 100,000 miles in length.

December 13. Sixty-five out of one hundred and two publishers in New York City accede to the request of the compositors for a nine-hour workday.

December 14. The Georgia House adopts a resolution asking Congress to enact necessary legislation to place Georgia quarantine regulations in the hands of the United States Marine Hospital Service in the future in case of yellow fever, cholera, smallpox, etc.

December 16. The president nominates Attorney-General McKenna to be an associate justice of the United States Supreme Court.——The annual meeting of the National Civil Service Reform League begins in Cincinnati.

December 17. Carl Schurz is reelected president of the Civil Service Reform League of Cincinnati.——The following are among the appointments made by the president: Nathan B. Scott, commissioner of internal revenue, William W. Thomas, Jr., minister to Sweden and Norway.

December 21. The Indianapolis city council passes a curfew ordinance.——Josiah Quincy, Democrat, is reelected mayor of Boston.

December 22. A sleet storm in Texas causes many cattle to perish; frosts injure the orange and lemon crops in southern California.

December 23. Damage to the amount of $500,000 is caused by a fire in the business center of Cleveland.

December 24. The Coliseum at Chicago, the huge building in which the last Democratic National Convention was held, is completely destroyed by fire.

December 25. About thirty persons are injured in Asheville, N. C., from the explosion of a can of powder while a Christmas salute is being fired.——Fifteen thousand glass-workers in Indiana return to work.

January 2. The report of the Monetary Commission is made public. Its recommendations have been embodied in a bill which will soon be presented to Congress.

FOREIGN.

December 10. General Ruis Rivera, the insurgent leader, is released from prison in Cuba, having been pardoned by royal decree.——A number of anarchists are expelled from Berlin.

December 12. The entire Haitian ministry resigns.——General Weyler arrives in Madrid and is ostentatiously received by ex-Premier Azcarraga and other leaders of the opposition.

December 15. It is understood that the committees of the striking engineers and the employers in Great Britain have reached an agreement as to the three leading points in dispute—freedom of employment, piece work, and over-time.

December 17. The French Chamber of Deputies adopts a proposal fixing upon ten hours as a day's work for railroad employees; this is to be followed by ten hours of rest.

December 18. The tombs of Voltaire and Rousseau are opened in the Pantheon to set at rest a long-standing controversy.

December 21. The Arabs along the Persian Gulf are in revolt against the Turkish government.

December 24. The pope issues an encyclical on the Manitoba school question.

December 27. Great Britain declines to enter into an agreement with the United States, Russia, and Japan to stop sealing in Bering Sea.

December 29. The French have occupied Odienne and Sambatigila in West Africa and the indications are that an advance against Chief Samory is imminent.——Fire destroys a third part of Port au Prince, Haiti.

January 3. Li Hung Chang is recalled to power at Peking.——Bread riots occur in the province of Girgenti, Sicily; troops are called out.

NECROLOGY.

December 12. Mrs. Nancy Allison McKinley, mother of the president, Canton, O.

December 18. Washington Hesing, ex-postmaster of Chicago.

December 29. William J. Linton, engraver and writer, New Haven, Conn.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR FEBRUARY.

First Week (ending February 5).

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter III.
"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter II.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Rhine Country."
Sunday Reading for January 30.

Second Week (ending February 12).

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter IV.
"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapters III. and IV.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Household Industries in the Colonies."
"Insect Communities."
Sunday Reading for February 6.

Third Week (ending February 19).

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter V.
"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapters V. and VI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"German Social Democracy."
"The Financial Markets of Germany."
Sunday Reading for February 13.

Fourth Week (ending February 26).

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter VI.
"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapters VII. and VIII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Influence of Roman Law on English Law."
Sunday Reading for February 20.

FOR MARCH.

First Week (ending March 4).

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter VII.
"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter IX.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Ingenuity of Ants and Wasps."
Sunday Reading for February 27.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR FEBRUARY.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. An Illustrated Talk—The ancient city of Rome.
3. An Essay—Missionary work in ancient times.
4. An Essay—Migration, its causes and results.
5. A Paper—The Byzantine Empire.
6. General Conversation—Current news.

Second Week.

Justinian Day—February 10.

1. A Biographical Sketch—Justinian the Great.
2. A Paper—Justinian's administration.
3. A Paper—January 532.
4. An Essay—The ecclesiastical policy of Justinian.
5. A Talk—Justinian's legislation.

Third Week.

1. A Talk—American stock exchanges.
2. A Study in French History—The Paris commune.
3. An Essay—Rome in the time of the Gracchi.
4. A Talk.—Noted Roman conspirators.
5. Discussion—The dismemberment of the Chinese Empire.*

Fourth Week.

1. An Essay—The battle of Hastings.
2. Historical Review—The explorations of the Norsemen.
3. A Paper—Rome after the death of Nero.
4. A Talk—The history of the trial by jury.
5. General Discussion—The Hawaiian annexation scheme.*

FOR MARCH.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Geographical and Historical Study—Sicily.
3. A Paper—The Saracens.
4. General Discussion—The results of absolute freedom of speech.

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*See *Current History and Opinion.*

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

"A SHORT HISTORY OF MEDIÆVAL EUROPE."

P. 23. "Nicæa" [nī-sē'a]. An ancient town of Asia Minor nearly sixty miles southeast of Constantinople. The first general church council was held here in 325 A. D.

P. 23. "Mœsia" [mē'shi-ä]. A province of the ancient Roman Empire which included nearly the same territory as the modern Bulgaria and Servia.

P. 24. "Pannonia." A Roman province south of the Danube River and north of Mœsia.

P. 25. "Illyria." A province on the western coast of the Balkan Peninsula now included in Montenegro and a part of the Austrian and Turkish dominions.

P. 26. "Rhegium" [rē'ji-um]. An ancient city on the strait of Messina now called Reggio di Calabria [red'jō dē kä-lä'brē-ä].——"Cosenza" [kō-sen'-dzä]. A city in southern Italy.

P. 27. "Busento." The Busento River is in southern Italy and flows by Cosenza. It is a small stream.

P. 27. "Narbonne." A town of France near the Mediterranean coast.——"Orosius." A Latin historian of the fifth century A. D.

P. 29. "Arian." An advocate of Arianism, founded by Arius, who held the belief that the Father and the Son are similar in nature but that the Son is subordinate to the Father.

P. 30. "Patricius." Of the rank or dignity of the *patres* or patricians; a member of the Roman nobility.

P. 36. "Sugambri" [sū-gam'brī].——"Chamavi" [ka-mā'vī].——"Attuarii" [at-tu-a'ri-ī].——"Ampsivarii" [amp-si-vā'ri-ī].——"Chatti" [kat'ī].——"Tencteri" [tengk'tē-rī].——"Bructeri" [bruk'-te-rī].

P. 37. "Gepidæ" [jep'i-dē].——"The Wash." An arm of the North Sea between Norfolk and Lincolnshire, England. It is about twenty-two miles long and fifteen miles wide.

P. 37. "Stour" [stoor]. A river in England.

P. 38. "Ecgberht." The Anglo-Saxon spelling of Egbert.

P. 39. "Ealdormen" [ēl'der-men].——"Ceorl." The Anglo-Saxon form of churl.

P. 40. "Lindisfarne" [lin-dis-färn']. Holy Island is another name for the same place, which at low water is a peninsula.

P. 48. "Chosroes" [kos'rō-ez].

P. 50. "Exarch." From a Greek word meaning commander or ruler; a viceroy; a governor.

P. 59. "Basileus." The Greek word for king.

P. 61. "Mayfields," or *champs de mai*, were annual assemblies of the Frankish tribes, so-called from the time (May) in which they occurred. These meetings were held for various purposes. At different times they had the character of a military review, or of a national assembly in honor of the supreme chief of the nation, or of an assembly of warriors and lords to consult on matters of importance to the whole nation.

P. 63. "Aachen" [ä'ĸen]. The German name of Aix-la-Chapelle.——"Ingelheim" [ing'el-hīm]. A town about eight miles west of Mainz.——"Nijmegen" [nī'mā-ĸen]. A city in the Netherlands. It is also called Nimwegen [nim'wā-gen].

P. 64. "Reichenau" [rī'ĸe-nou]. An island in the western arm of the Lake of Constance.——"Corvey" [kor-vī']. A German Benedictine abbey about a mile from Höxter on the Weser River.

P. 74. "Friuli" [frē'ōō-lē]. A district of Italy north of the Adriatic Sea.

P. 75. "Flanders." Formerly a territory in Europe bordering on the North Sea and extending from the strait of Dover to the mouth of the Schelde River.——"Poitou" [pwä-too']. A government of ancient France south of Brittany and Anjou.——"Anjou" was east of Brittany.——"Poitiers" [pwä-tyā']. The capital of Poitou.——"Gascony." Formerly a duchy of France. See the map of the empire of Karl the Great in the text-book.

P. 76. "Magyars" [ma-järz'].

P. 77. "D'Outremer." A French phrase meaning beyond the sea.——"Transmarinus" is a Latin word having the same meaning.

P. 77. "Blois" [blwä].——"Champagne" [sham-pān' or, French pronunciation, shoN-päng']. An ancient government of France bordering on Belgium.——"Chartres" [shärtr]. A district in northern France.

P. 81. "Montlhéry" [môN-lā-rē'].

P. 83. "Altheim" [ält'hīm]. A German town in Baden.

P. 84. "Widukind" or Wittukind. A German historian and monk who lived in the tenth century. His great work was a history of King Henry I. and the Emperor Otto I.

P. 89. "Princeps atque," etc. The prince and senator of all the Romans.

P. 89. "Clugny" or Cluny [klü-nē']. A town of France noted for the Benedictine abbey founded there in the tenth century.

P. 91. "Liutprand" [li-oot'prand].——"Res

Gestæ Saxonicæ." Saxonic exploits.——"Walthari Lied." Song to Walter.——"Hrotsuitha" [hrōt'svē-tä].——"Lapsus et conversio Theophilé." The fall and conversion of Theophilus.

P. 96. "Thanet." An island off the east coast of Kent, England.

P. 101. "Jumièges" [zhü-myāzh']. A village of France a few miles west of Rouen. An abbey church of the Benedictines was located in this town.

P. 108. "Bayeux" [bä-yē']. A French town a few miles west of Caen.

"ROMAN LIFE IN PLINY'S TIME."

P. 59. "Gabii" [gā'bi-ī]. A city in ancient Latium conquered by Tarquinius Superbus. According to a legendary account Sextus, the youngest son of Tarquinius Superbus, came to Gabii and, representing himself as a fugitive from the tyranny of his father, became the leader of the Gabians. A messenger sent to his father for further instructions reported to Sextus that the king, Tarquinius, was in his garden and had cut off the heads of the tallest poppies. Sextus showed that he comprehended the message by at once killing the chief men of Gabii. The town was then surrendered to Tarquin.——"Præneste" [prē-nes'tē]. An ancient town in Latium on a spur of the Apennine range. It was a summer resort for the Romans and the temple and oracle of the goddess Fortune attracted many visitors.——"Volsinium." An ancient town built on a height about fifty miles northwest of Rome.——"Anio" [ä'nē-ō]. A tributary of the Tiber River which joins it a few miles north of Rome. Near Tivoli there is a waterfall of about 300 feet.

P. 62. "Cato Uticensis." A Roman Stoic philosopher and patriot. He committed suicide in 46 B. C.

P. 68. "M. Jourdain" [zhoor-daN']. A character in Molière's "Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme" who, being a plain, ordinary citizen, and wealthy, wishes to acquire the culture of a perfect gentleman and tries to educate himself.

P. 68. "Campus Martius." A plain in ancient Rome extending toward the Tiber from the Pincian, Quirinal, and Capitoline Hills. For many years the plain was kept free of buildings for military exercises and assemblies of a popular character. During the reign of Augustus buildings were erected on the south and east, but enough of the plain was left for races and athletic sports. The most important part of modern Rome now occupies this historic area.

P. 73. "Sardou" [sär-doo']. A French dramatist born in 1831. His "Bons Villageois" (Good Villagers) is an "urban satire on country politicians."

P. 76. "Murrhine" [mur'rĭn or mur'rīn]. An ornamental stone mentioned by Greek and Latin authors and described by Pliny but so indefinitely that archeologists have not been able positively to identify the material. According to eminent authority it is the same as fluor-spar, but proof of this is still wanting as no vases or other objects made of fluor-spar have yet been discovered by excavators.

P. 78. "Northumberland House." A famous historical mansion of London. It was erected in the seventeenth century on the southeast side of Trafalgar Square and a few years ago it was removed that a new street, Northumberland Avenue, might be opened.

P. 85. "Æsculapius" [es-kū-la'pi-us]. According to Greek mythology the god of medicine. It is related that Zeus killed him with a thunderbolt when Pluto complained that the population of Hades was diminishing.

P. 86. "La Rochefoucauld" [lä rōsh-foo-kō']. A French author of the seventeenth century known principally by his "Maxims," memoirs, and correspondence.

P. 89. "Labiche" [lä-bēsh']. A French dramatist of the nineteenth century.

P. 93. "Atellan." A name given to the early Roman comedies which were derived from Atella, a small town in Campania, Italy. From coarse farces they were gradually elevated to the plane of a comedy.

P. 93. "Palilia." The celebration in honor of Pales, the protector of flocks and shepherds. The festival was held on April 21, the anniversary of the founding of Rome. The most important ceremonies consisted of purifying the flocks, herds, and stables by fire and smoke. Feasting and pleasures were indulged in.——"Saturnalia." The festival held in honor of Saturn, the god of agriculture. The celebration which occurred in the middle of December had the nature of a harvest-home festival and all classes of society took part in the feasting and revelry.

P. 113. "Caius Flaminius." A general and politician of Rome. In 232 he was tribune. He died in 217 B. C.

P. 116. "Gracchi." Two brothers, Caius Sempronius Gracchus and Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus, who were Roman tribunes.

P. 118. "Araby." A poetical term for Arabia.

P. 118. "Naxos." A seaport town in Sicily.——"Cynthus." In ancient times a mountain in Delos, a small island in the Ægean Sea.

P. 119. "Ostia." An ancient port of Rome at the mouth of the Tiber.——"Visconti" [vis-kon'tē]. An archeologist of Italy. He died in 1818.

P. 121. "Fiumicino" [fee-oo-me-chee'no].

P. 130. "*Via Sacra*." Sacred way. A street in ancient Rome, the first one opened beneath the hills.——"Forum Pacis" [pā'sis]. The forum of peace. It enclosed the Temple of Peace dedicated

in 75 A. D. in honor of the capture of Jerusalem. A part of the exterior wall of the forum still stands. ——"Vicus Tuscus." The street Tuscus.—— "Circus Maximus." The great circus which occupied the valley between the Palatine and Aventine Hills. Modern structures now almost cover the space.

P. 140. "Vicetia." The Latin name of Vicenza, an Italian city with a population of about 40,000.

P. 141. "Basilica Julia." A public building in the forum used for judicial tribunals. It was built by Julius Cæsar.

P. 146. "Chronus," or Cronus, is identical with Saturn, or Time.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN."

"THE RHINE COUNTRY."

1. "Saint Gothard" [English pronunciation, sānt goth'ärd].

2. "Chur" [KOOR; R indicates a trill]. The capital of a Swiss canton.

3. "Tyrol" [tir'ol]. A western crownland, or administrative province, of Austria-Hungary. It is a mountainous country abounding in picturesque scenery.

4. "Ill" [ēl].

5. "Schaffhausen" [shäf-hou'zen].

6. "Kaiserstuhl" [kī'zer-stool]. A town in Switzerland.

7. "Bernese Oberland" [German pronunciation, o'ber-länt]. The Bernese highlands. The southern portion of the Swiss canton of Bern.

8. "Mannheim" [mān'hīm]. See the map of the German Empire in "Imperial Germany."

9. "Vosges" [vōzh]. A range of mountains forming part of the boundary between France and Germany.

10. "Spire" [spēr]. Also written Spires [spīrz].

11. "Mainz" [mīnts]. The French form of the same word is Mayence [mä-yoNss']. Mentz is another form sometimes used. See the map of the German Empire in "Imperial Germany."

12. "Taunus" [tou'nus]. A mountain range in western Germany.

13. "Ehrenbreitstein" [ā-ren-breit'stein].

14. "Andernach" [än'der-näK]. A German town about ten miles northwest of Coblenz.

15. "Lorelei" [lō're-lī].

16. "Niebuhr" [nē'boor]. A noted historian of Germany.

17. "Yssel" [ī'sel].

18. "Nibelungenlied" [nē'be-loong-en-lēd]. A German epic poem written in the first half of the thirteenth century.

19. "Clovis," the founder of the Frankish monarchy, married a Catholic princess, Clotilda, who attempted to convert him to her faith but without success. When Clovis found that he was about to be defeated by the Alemanni at the battle of Tolbiac he fell on his knees and exclaimed, "God of Clotilda, give me assistance in this hour of necessity, and I confess thy name." He won the battle and was afterward baptized with 3,000 others.

20. "Hatto." According to a German legend, an archbishop living in Mentz in the tenth century who refused to aid the poor during a famine. Therefore mice ate his body in Mouse Tower on an island of the Rhine River near Bingen.

21. "Lohengrin" [lō'en-grin]. See the article on "Lohengrin" in this impression of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

22. "Three Kings." The three wise men of the East who visited the infant Jesus. It is said that the relics of these men were taken to Constantinople by Empress Helena and afterward removed to Milan. From Milan they were taken to Cologne by Frederick Barbarossa and placed in a reliquary in the Chapel of the Three Kings, a part of the cathedral.

23. By the terms of the "truce of God" there was a cessation of private quarrels or wars from sunset on Wednesday to sunrise on Monday and during important seasons like Lent and Advent. This practice was introduced by the church during the Middle Ages, but when civil authorities became powerful enough to deal with violators of the peace this institution disappeared. See page 93 of "A Short History of Mediæval Europe."

"HOUSEHOLD INDUSTRIES."

1. "*Da capo*" [dä kä'pō]. An Italian phrase meaning again; from the beginning.

2. "Tusser." An English poet of the sixteenth century. "A Hundred Good Points of Good Husbandry" and "Five Hundred Points of Good Husbandry United to as Many of Good Wiferie," are the titles of two of his works.

"INSECT LIFE."

1. "Hymettus." A mountain range of Greece southeast of Athens, noted among the ancient Greeks for its honey, which is still abundant there but inferior in quality.

2. "Amazons." According to a Greek legend a race of female warriors inhabiting the coast of the Black Sea and the Caucasus Mountains. They devoted themselves to war and hunting. An Indian myth current from Paraguay to the West Indies gave rise to the story that the Amazons once existed in South America.

"GERMAN SOCIAL DEMOCRACY."

1. "Montesquieu" [mon-tes-kū']. A noted French author born in 1689.——"Voltaire." The

name assumed by François Marie Arout [ä-roo-ā']. A noted French writer. He died in 1778.——"Encyclopedists." A name given to the collaborators in the French "Encyclopédie," chief among whom were Diderot and D'Alembert. "The Encyclopedists as a body were the exponents of the French skepticism of the eighteenth century."

2. "Hegelians." Those who accept the teachings and opinions of Hegel, a noted German philosopher.

3. "Proudhon" [proo-dôN']. A French socialist of this century.

4. "Bebel" [bā'bel]. A leader of the German Social Democrats.

5. "Fichte" [fiK'te]. A metaphysician of Germany.

6. "Schulze-Delitzsch" [shoolt'se-dā'lich]. A nineteenth century politician in Germany.

7. "Fourth estate." A term applied to the lowest classes of society. The common people are called the third estate, a term which came into general use after the struggle of the representatives of the *tiers état* (third estate) for power in the States-General of France in 1789.

8. "Liebknecht" [lēp'kneKt]. A journalist and a politician of Germany. He was born in 1826.

9. "Eisenach" [ī'ze-näK]. A town of Germany about forty miles west of Weimar.

10. "Gotha" [gō'tä]. The capital of the duchy of Gotha, Germany.

11. "Roscher" [rōsh'er]. A noted political economist of Germany. He died in 1894.——"Rodbertus" [rod-ber'toos]. A German socialist leader who lived from 1805 to 1875.——"Rau." A political economist of Germany. He died in 1890.——"Schäffle" [shāf'fle]. A German teacher of political economy.——"Schmoller." A political economist born in 1838.

12. "Niederwald plot." A plot to kill, by the explosion of dynamite, the emperor, the crown prince, and other members of the royal family, state officials, and politicians who were present at the unveiling of the Niederwald national monument.

13. "Halle" [häl'le]. A town about twenty miles northwest of Leipsic.

SUNDAY READINGS.

1. "Sufism" [soo'fism]. The doctrine of the Sufis, "a peculiar sect of the Mohammedans who claim supernatural intercourse with the Supreme Being, a mystical identity and union with him, and miraculous powers."

2. "Gnosticism." The doctrines of the Gnostics, "certain rationalistic sects which arose in the Christian Church in the first century, flourished in the second, and had almost entirely disappeared by the sixth. The Gnostics held that knowledge rather than faith is the road to heaven, and professed to have a peculiar knowledge of religious mysteries. They rejected the literal interpretation of the Scriptures, and attempted to combine their teachings with those of the Greek and oriental philosophies and religions. They held that God was the unknowable and the unapproachable; that from him proceeded by emanation subordinate deities termed *eons*, from whom again proceeded other still inferior spirits. . . . Christ they regarded as a superior eon who had descended from the infinite God in order to subdue the god, or eon, of this world. Their chief seats were in Syria and Egypt, but their doctrines were taught everywhere, and at an early date they separated into a variety of sects."—*The Century Cyclopedia of Names.*

"Sabellius." A Roman presbyter who was born in the last half of the second century A. D. He was the founder of Sabellianism, in which, in regard to the Trinity, is expressed the doctrine that God, being one divine person, manifests himself in three ways—"in creating, redeeming, and sanctifying mankind"—and therefore becomes Father, Son, and Holy Ghost according to the manifestations which are mere aspects and not personalities of the Deity.——"Socinus" [sō-sī'nus]. An Italian antitrinitarian of the sixteenth century and with his nephew Faustus Socinus a founder of Socinianism, which teaches, among other things, that Christ as a man divinely endowed was entitled to reverence but not to worship.

3. "Boehme" [bö'me]. A German mystic born in 1575.

4. "Assisi" [ä-sē'sē]. A town in Italy.

5. "Schleiermacher" [shlī'er-mäK-er].

6. "D'Aubigné" [dō-bē-nyā'].

"THE INFLUENCE OF ROMAN LAW ON ENGLISH LAW."

1. "Fortesque" [fôr'tes-kū]. An English jurist of the fifteenth century.——"Selden." A jurist of England. He died in 1654.

2. "Corpus Juris Civilis." Body of civil law. A collection of Roman civil law compiled by the order of the Emperor Justinian (483–565). The collection consisted of the Institutes, the Pandects, or the Digest, the Code, and the Novellæ. See page 44 of "A Short History of Mediæval Europe."

3. "D'Aguesseau" [dä-gē-sō']. A French jurist and author, and chancellor of France. He died in 1751.

4. "31 Car. II. c. 2." The second chapter of the Statutes of Parliament enacted in the thirty-first year of the reign of Charles II.

5. "Magna Charta" [mag'nä kär'tä]. The Great Charter or "Charter of Liberties" of England, signed and sealed by King John at Runnymede, June 15, 1215.

6. "Ulpian." A Roman jurist murdered about

228 A. D. About a third of Justinian's Digest is composed of extracts from Ulpian's works.

7. "*Sui juris.*" In one's own right.

8. "Theodosian Code." A collection containing the Roman laws from the time of Constantine to the reign of Theodosius II. The code was composed of sixteen books and was first published in 438 A. D.

9. "*Questiones perpetuæ.*" Latin words meaning a standing commission, a permanent tribunal for criminal investigation.

10. "Vacarius." A jurist of the twelfth century born in Lombardy. He was the first to teach Roman law in England. He made an extract of the Code and the Digest which is still extant in manuscript.

11. "Bracton." An English jurist. He died in 1268. His famous work was entitled "The Laws and Customs of England."

12. "*Injuria.*" Injurious or unlawful conduct.

13. "*Læsa majestas.*" Latin, meaning high treason.——"*Crimen falsi.*" A Latin phrase, the literal meaning of which is crime of falsehood; perjury. ——"*Occultatio thesauri.*" Concealment of treasure.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"A SHORT HISTORY OF MEDIÆVAL EUROPE."

1. Q. What were some of the causes of migration? A. Hunger, the knowledge that better conditions of life existed elsewhere, and invasions by more powerful tribes.

2. Q. Under the influence of the Romans who took the first steps in civilization? A. The Goths.

3. Q. Who was probably the greatest German leader in the period of invasion? A. Alaric, king of the Visigoths.

4. Q. What idea did he seek to establish among his people? A. The idea of a free, independent national existence.

5. Q. By whom were the West Goths conquered? A. The Mohammedans.

6. Q. Who destroyed the kingdom of the East Goths? A. Justinian.

7. Q. When did the kingdom of the Franks begin? A. With the accession of Chlodwig to the throne.

8. Q. Who began to ravage the coast of Britain in the fifth century? A. The tribes inhabiting the territory between the mouth of the Rhine and the straits leading into the Baltic.

9. Q. What is the result of the pure German state established in Britain by the Anglo-Saxons? A. England has now the purest Germanic law of any country in existence.

10. Q. In whose administration did the reaction against the Germans reach the highest point? A. In that of Justinian.

11. Q. In regard to church matters how did Justinian regard himself? A. As the final authority in all questions relating to the church.

12. Q. Who were the emperor's worst foes? A. The people of Constantinople.

13. Q. What was probably a cause of much of the trouble? A. Religious differences.

14. Q. How was the Germanic element in the empire strengthened? A. By the formation of the Bavarian tribe, the settlement of the Lombards in Italy, and the growth of the Franks.

15. Q. What was the beginning of the famous alliance between the bishops of Rome and the Frankish kings? A. The conversion of Chlodwig and the Franks to the orthodox faith.

16. Q. What was the character of Karl's reign? A. It was one long campaign.

17. Q. What were some of the effects of the restoration of the empire in the West? A. Germany and Italy were bound together in a union which caused the political ruin of both; the political unity of Germany was made impossible for many years afterward.

18. Q. How did Karl keep informed on the church and state affairs in his kingdom? A. Through the reports of the royal messengers, or "Missi Dominici."

19. Q. What was the outcome of Karl's activities in educational work? A. A real revival of learning.

20. Q. What were some of the causes of the disintegration of Karl's empire? A. The weakness of his successors; the partition of the empire among the sons of the royal family; the racial differences existing in the realm; and the forces aroused by the invasion of the barbarians.

21. Q. When does the history of France and of Germany as separate nations begin? A. With 843.

22. Q. Who was the first of the Capetian kings? A. Hugo Capet.

23. Q. How long did the Capetians in the direct line rule France? A. From 987 to 1328.

24. Q. Under Louis VI. what improvement was made in the French government? A. The power of the king increased, lawlessness was checked, and feudal customs became more fixed.

25. Q. What royal prerogative was assumed by Arnulf? A. The sovereignty over the rulers of the West and he demanded and received the acknowledg-

ment of his supremacy from the kings of Burgundy, Italy, and the West Franks.

26. Q. With whose death did the line of Karl the Great end in Germany? A. That of Ludwig the Child.

27. Q. What king attempted to revive the governmental methods of Karl the Great? A. Otto I.

28. Q. What especial honor belongs to Otto I? A. That of designating the direction in which Germany should expand.

29. Q. After the coronation of Arnulf what was the condition of affairs in Italy? A. Italy was hopelessly divided into contending factions.

30. Q. By what is the age of Otto I. marked? A. By great literary activity.

31. Q. When did the struggle for supremacy among the small kingdoms of England end? A. During the reign of Egbert, which began in 802.

32. Q. What task was left to the successors of Alfred the Great? A. To prevent migration from the Continent, reconquer the Danelaw, promote the fusion of the Danes with the English, and secure a united England.

33. Q. Into whose power did England fall in the first part of the eleventh century? A. That of the Danes.

34. Q. When and through whom was the English line restored? A. In 1042 by the accession of Edward the Confessor to the throne.

35. Q. To whom is Edward the Confessor said to have promised the crown? A. To his cousin, William of Normandy.

36. Q. What great battle resulted from William's claim to the throne? A. The battle of Hastings in 1066.

37. Q. What was the result of the conquest of England by the Normans? A. It brought England into the struggles of the Continent and made her one of the continental powers of Europe.

"ROMAN LIFE IN PLINY'S TIME."

1. Q. What reasons are given for the narrow streets in ancient Rome? A. The shade they afforded and the natural configuration of the land.

2. Q. What was especially noticeable in the façades on the streets of Rome? A. The lack of symmetry.

3. Q. How was the irregular aspect of the streets increased? A. By the little sheds put up against the houses and extending into the streets.

4. Q. To what do the Romans owe their reputation of being great builders? A. To their public works, such as roads, aqueducts, causeways, etc.

5. Q. Up to the time of Sulla what was the character of private dwellings? A. They were very simple.

6. Q. What quality was sought in the architecture under the empire? A. Grandeur.

7. Q. What was the essential room of the Roman house? A. The atrium.

8. Q What was the character of its decorations? A. They were luxurious.

9. Q. How were slaves at first treated in Rome? A. With great cruelty.

10. Q. Who besides war captives were numbered among the slaves? A. Citizens who had undergone civil degradation, insolvent debtors, and the children of slaves.

11. Q. What effect had the change in the character of the slaves on the treatment they received? A. It tended to make the treatment of the slaves milder.

12. Q. By what other influence was the condition of the slaves ameliorated? A. By that of philosophy.

13. Q. What more than philosophy or law protected the slave from cruelty? A. The self-interest of the masters.

14. Q. How was the respect due a man indicated? A. By the number of his servants.

15. Q. How were slaves first classified? A. According to their nationality and their color.

16. Q. How was a master able to govern his large body of slaves? A. By dividing them into groups of ten, each group to be in charge of a decurion who was under the authority of a steward or farmer.

17. Q. What was the relation of the slaves to each other? A. Sometimes hatred and rivalry existed among them, but frequently their common sufferings made them form warm friendships.

18. Q. According to the terms of the law up to the end of the empire, when could a slave claim freedom? A. When he had been exposed sick on the island in the Tiber sacred to Æsculapius and when he had informed against a criminal.

19. Q. Of what were most of the emancipations the result? A. Of a master's willingness to give freedom.

20. Q. How were freedmen regarded? A. With contempt.

21. Q. What branch of industry never reached a very high degree of activity in Rome? A. Commerce.

22. Q. What two causes are given for the stagnation of commerce in Rome? A. A great disproportion in the distribution of wealth and premiums awarded to idleness.

23. Q. What form of commerce was most largely engaged in? A. Transmarine.

24. Q. What was the basis of the social economy of the Romans? A. Money-dealing and the leasing of the taxes.

25. Q. What was the object of the guilds formed by Roman tradesmen and craftsmen? A. Mutual protection and support.

26. Q. What was a favorite method of obtaining a fortune? A. By hunting legacies.

27. Q. To what did this occupation give rise? A. Many lawsuits.

28. Q. Under the Cæsars what was the condition of the Roman bar? A. It was very corrupt.

29. Q. By whom was a reform of the bar undertaken? A. Quintilian.

30. Q. Under whom was real progress made? A. Under Trajan.

31. Q. Who was one of the most prominent of the benefactors of the profession? A. Pliny the Younger.

32. Q. In what court did Pliny the Younger practice? A. In the centumviral court, where he found himself without a rival.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

GERMAN HISTORY.—V.

1. When were the Carlsbad Decrees adopted?

2. For what did the most important of these provide?

3. What provision does the Compulsory Insurance Act make for a workman who becomes disabled?

4. What Germans are liable for active military service?

5. What is the period of service in the active army?

6. How is the navy manned?

7. When does Germany's new code of laws go into effect?

8. How many sections does the new code contain?

9. With what subjects does the new code deal?

10. Previous to the passage of this code by how many systems of law had Germany been governed?

GERMAN LITERATURE.—V.

1. By what production is Klopstock chiefly known?

2. Is this work as popular now as formerly?

3. Why was Wieland called the "German Voltaire"?

4. Name his most successful opera?

5. What change was noticeable in the character of his writings after about 1760?

6. Name the principal facts in the life of Herder?

7. What is his greatest work?

8. What is said of the completion of his writings?

9. Who is the author of that famous patriotic song "Die Wacht am Rhein"?

10. When was this written?

NATURE STUDIES.—V.

1. What is the color of the larvæ of ants?

2. What are the egg-shaped bodies often seen in an ants' nest?

3. What tasks are performed by the workers?

4. In what state do most aphids pass the winter?

5. What aphids are often seen on the alder?

6. In what condition do they pass the winter?

7. In what does the bumblebee differ from the honey bee?

8. What seems to be the principal mission of the bumblebee?

9. Where do the bumblebees make their nests?

10. Which class of bumblebees survive the winter?

CURRENT EVENTS.—V.

1. Of how many members is the Hawaiian Senate and House of Representatives composed?

2. How are they elected and for how long?

3. To qualify a person for a senator and a representative what is necessary?

4. What qualifications must a voter in Hawaii possess?

5. Who is president of Hawaii and when does his term of office expire?

6. How and for how long is the president elected?

7. To be eligible to the presidency of Hawaii what qualifications are necessary?

8. What is the area and population of the Hawaiian Republic?

9. Of what formation are the islands of the republic?

10. Which island has been set apart for lepers?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR JANUARY.

GERMAN HISTORY.—IV.

1. In 1785 by Frederick the Great. 2. To obtain Bavaria in exchange for the Low Countries. 3. In 1772. 4. Catherine of Russia and Frederick II. 5. The strife with the Roman Catholic clergy. 6. The Zollverein. 7. The Seven Weeks' War in 1866. 8. The peace of Prague. 9. At Berlin, March 21, 1871. 10. The imperial crown of Germany; the proposed constitution did not grant him sufficient power to conduct the affairs of the nation successfully.

GERMAN LITERATURE.—IV.

1. Weimar, Thuringia. 2. He aimed at a simple, clear style, but finally his verse became dull, insipid, and vulgar. 3. When he was professor in Weissen-

fels (1670) and later as rector in Zittau. 4. Molière, Racine, Voltaire, and others. 5. It checked literary development for a time. 6. Andreas Griphius. 7. "Peter Squenz." Its best and leading ideas are taken from "Midsummer Night's Dream." 8. Christian Thomasius (1655–1728) in his lectures at Leipsic and afterward at Halle. 9. 1695–1723. 10. Albrecht von Haller (1708–77).

NATURE STUDIES.—IV.

1. Formicary. 2. From the Latin word *formica*, an ant. 3. From two Greek words, *hymen*, membrane, and *pteron*, a wing. 4. Four. 5. That change or metamorphosis in which there is a well-defined inactive pupa state between the larva and the perfect insect. 6. Yes. 7. Honey-dew obtained from aphids. 8. They keep the eggs of aphids in their nests during the winter and in the spring they carry the young insects out to the plants on which they live. 9. By the shape of the body, which has not the slender waist between the thorax and the abdomen. 10. In old logs and stumps, or under stones.

CURRENT EVENTS.—IV.

1. In 1867. 2. A body called the delegations. 3. Of twenty members from the upper house and forty from the lower house of the Reichsrath of Austria and the same number from the Parliament of Hungary; alternately at Vienna and Budapest. 4. Each delegation deliberates and acts separately and if a different decision is reached by the two delegations they come together and take a joint ballot. 5. Francis Joseph I.; in 1848. 6. Emperor of Austria, king of Bohemia, and king of Hungary. 7. The nephew of the emperor, Archduke Franz Ferdinand. 8. Three ministers appointed by himself. 9. The president. 10. Individually to the delegations and to the emperor.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882–1901.

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS."

"*Light, Love, Life.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—William H. Mosely, New Haven, Conn. Rev. George S. Duncan, D. C.; John Sinclair, New York; Mrs Samuel George, W. Va.

Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Harriet Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—COREOPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

THE month of February finds the class hard at work on a new section of the year's study. "A Short History of Medieval Europe" will serve next year to make our understanding of modern Europe all the more clear and effective. The Dark Ages often seem uninteresting to the casual reader, but when looked at as the source of our modern European civilization they assume a deep significance.

MEMBERS of the class will find map work very valuable in connection with this month's study. Our text-book contains excellent maps, but for purposes of drill in the circles the C. L. S. C. office furnishes an excellent outline wall map for fifty cents. Circles will find it an interesting feature of their work to alter this map from week to week as different phases of the history come before them.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"*Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor.*"

"*Licht, Liebe, Leben.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—Rev. John A. McKamy, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, Canisteo, N. Y.; J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer.—Miss Mabel Campbell, 53 Youngslove Ave., Cohoes, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

CLASS renewals are still being received at the Buffalo office, and members who have not yet secured the Membership Book are invited to send for it and thus get the most out of their review work.

THE question frequently comes up in the second year of a class as to whether new members may still be enrolled. This question is always answered in the affirmative. Any person who has read the course for '96–97 may, by paying the fee for that year, enter the Class of 1900 and receive full credit. It is not possible at this late day to furnish the complete Membership Book for that year, but the memoranda are provided, thus enabling the student to receive such credit as he may desire in the way of seals.

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"*Fidelity, Fraternity.*"

OFFICERS.

President—John C. Martin, New York, N. Y.

Vice Presidents—John A. Travis, Washington, D. C.; Charles Barnard, New York, N. Y.; Frank G. Carpenter, Washington, D. C.; John Brown, Chicago, Ill.; Charles A. Carlysle, South Bend, Ind.; Edward Marsden, Alaska; William Ashton, Uxbridge, England; Miss Alice Haworth, Osaka, Japan; Miss Frances O. Wilson, Tientsin, China.

Secretary—Miss Isabelle T. Smart, Brielle, N. J.
Treasurer—John C. Whiteford, Chautauqua, N. Y.
Trustee—Miss M. A. Bortle, Mansfield, O.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.
CLASS COLOR—BLUE.
CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

A NEW blank form for report of reading was sent out this fall by the C. L. S. C. office, to be returned with the fee for the year and a statement of such reading as had been completed. This was not designed to do away with the memoranda, but rather to give those students who had not yet prepared the memoranda, or who found themselves unable to do so, an opportunity to report their work and thus give the C. L. S. C. office a record of their progress. This plan was tried for the first time this year, so that there is no similar form for the work of earlier years. Some members of the class have requested such a form and this explanation will make the matter plain.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"The humblest life that lives may be divine."

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.
Vice Presidents—Mrs. Frances R. Ford, Troy, N. Y.; Mrs. W. V. Hazeltine, Jamestown, N. Y.; Mrs. W. T. Gardner; S. H. Clark, Chicago, Ill.; Dr. J. M. Buckley, New York, N. Y.
Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

IT is not too early to remind members of '98 of the requirements for graduation, which are very simple but also very definite.

1. The required four years' course must have been read.

2. The four years must be four consecutive years, or at least four different years, namely, the English, American, French, Greek, and German-Roman years. If a member is finishing a course which included Greek and Roman years before the French and German features were added, these will be accepted.

3. It is not necessary to fill out memoranda, but these are recommended, as the review is valuable and the seals are evidence of successful work.

Further announcements will be made later.

GRADUATE CLASSES.

THE famous Alpha Circle of Cincinnati has been letting its light shine to very decided purpose. Besides taking special seal courses themselves, they are exerting a general influence upon the community and fostering the organization of other circles. From the Alpine Circle comes the proposition to open up a correspondence plan between the foreign members of the C. L. S. C. and some of the graduate circles. A definite plan will soon be announced so that at Chautauqua next summer we may hear from many of our old graduates living in foreign lands.

A PLEASANT illustration of the strong hold which Chautauqua has upon many a community is to be found in the fine organization of the Society of the Hall in the Grove in Toledo, O. The meetings are so related to those of the undergraduate circles that they are a constant stimulus to the latter, who look forward to the time when they may share in the work of the S. H. G.

AT Fremont, O., the Chautauquans of that community have met with a great loss in the death of Mrs. J. B. Van Doren, a woman of unusual gifts and a member of the C. L. S. C. from the earliest days of the Pioneer Class.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"We Study the Word and the Works of God." *"Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst."*
"Never be Discouraged."

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1897–98.

WILLIAM I. DAY—October 25.
BISMARCK DAY—November 16.
MOLTKE DAY—December 3.
PLINY DAY—January 23.
JUSTINIAN DAY—February 10.
FREDERICK II. DAY—March 20
MOHAMMED DAY—April 3.
NICCOLO PISANO DAY—May 28

NEW CIRCLES.

CHILI.—In this far-away land a flame of Chautauqua fire has been kindled by a former member of the class in Dubuque, Ia., who is now in Santiago. Several members of Santiago College, with a few friends outside, have organized a circle and entered with spirit into the new work they are beginning.

MAINE.—The librarian at Frankfort has joined

the freshman class, and several others will take up the reading, although not as active members.—— The Progress at Belfast, a branch of the Seaside Circle, meets in the evening, while the Seasides hold their sessions in the afternoon.——That popular organization, the Society of the Hall in the Grove, has eight new members in Lewiston.——A pleasant class of five, all members of the same family, are making a good beginning at Brunswick.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Three very busy people at Oxford do not call themselves a circle, but read the books and meet every month to talk over the studies.——A quartet of readers at Methuen have entered into the work with enthusiasm.——Sommerville makes an encouraging report of new members.—— A strong force at Malden is deriving great benefit from the C. L. S. C.——Plans are making for a profitable year's work by members at Newton. ——The Nutmeg Circle of New Haven does great credit to the large Chautauqua body.

NEW YORK.—A class of fifteen have taken the initial steps toward becoming members of the great Chautauqua body of students.——The Twentieth Century Class receives a new name from Rochester, and the Current History Course is also taken up by one person in this place.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The Twentieth Century Club at Lebanon is alive not only to Chautauqua interests but to matters of national importance as well. In a recent discussion concerning the advisability of adopting postal savings banks in the United States, the president of this circle was authorized to write to their senator and congressman asking their support if such a measure be proposed. The replies received showed appreciation of the interest taken in the matter by the circle and both gentlemen stated that their views were in accordance with those of the circle. At the last meeting held in December the evening was devoted to Goethe, his life and works, especially "Faust," and a well-prepared paper on "Reminiscences of the Goethe Towns" was read by a lady who had visited these places. The meeting closed with a reading in German from Goethe's "Ballad of Mignon."——A home circle is beginning the study of the course in Warren. ——1901 is increased by circles at Tyrone, Leona, and Reynoldsville.—— A firm believer in the C. L. S. C. has organized a circle at Allentown.

SOUTH CAROLINA.—A competent corps of half a dozen 01's is in Batesburg.——Edgefield is also making a good start toward the 1901 goal.

GEORGIA.—An exemplary circle of seventeen at Columbus are finding much pleasure in the pursuance of the literary study just undertaken.

ALABAMA.—Loyalty to Chautauqua and its interests characterizes the ten new members at Greenville, and it is to be hoped that not one will stop short of the golden gate.

ARKANSAS.—A fortunate beginning is made by the fifteen who compose the circle at Little Rock.

OHIO.—Swan Creek has in its midst several bright exponents of Chautauqua spirit.——The new circle at Ashland is late in beginning the work, but as they are ten very studious people they will doubtless soon make up what they have lost.—— An energetic circle is doing excellent work at Springfield.

INDIANA.—The best of Chautauqua material is found in the well-organized class at Butler.

ILLINOIS.—A remarkably successful class of fourteen is organized at Ridge Farm.

MINNESOTA.—The new class is fortunate in receiving such efficient support as will be given by the faithful class established at Tracy.

IOWA.—The Monday afternoon C. L. S. C. of Dubuque is composed entirely of ladies who spend Monday afternoon pleasantly and profitably in the study of Chautauqua literature.——Ten interested ladies at Des Moines will take up the Wayside Course, which is much shorter than the regular year's course, but it is a valuable literary study.—— Chester has an active Chautauqua circle.——Glowing reports come from the newly organized Chautauqua at Elliott.——Circles are reported from Cedar Rapids and Lohrville.

KANSAS.—The entire social and intellectual interest of Mulvane is centered in the C. L. S. C. work, and the circle is one of which any town might well be proud.

OLD CIRCLES.

CANADA.—An encouraging report from the secretary of Primrose Circle, Dundas, states: "Our circle has reorganized this year with a greatly increased membership and much greater enthusiasm than last year." They have a membership of twenty-three.

MAINE.—Members of three different classes compose the circle of thirteen at Springvale.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Hurlbut Circle is still holding up the Chautauqua standard, as is shown by the following interesting report: "The fifteenth anniversary of the organization of the Hurlbut Circle of East Boston was celebrated in an appropriate manner on Wednesday evening, October 26, in the parlors of the Saratoga Street Methodist Church. Invitations had been sent to all past members, and each was entitled to invite one friend; in consequence there were about seventy-five persons present. The guests began to arrive as early as half past seven, and from then until a quarter past eight a general reception was held, during which time ample opportunity was offered for the exchange of greetings and reminiscences. When the time allotted to the reception had expired the exercises proper of the evening were opened by the

president of the circle, Mr. J. H. S. Pearson, one of the original members and for the entire period of its existence its president, who in a pleasant speech welcomed the members and friends. The secretary, Otto A. Wehrle, who has held that office for fourteen years, was then introduced, and occupied a half-hour in relating the history and reminiscences of the circle. Then came the reading of an original poem by Andrew S. Howes, prepared for the occasion, songs by Miss Caroline Crane, and a short address by the Rev. Charles A. Crane, pastor of the church in which the exercises were held. At the conclusion of this feature the Chautauqua salute was given for each officer of the circle in turn, and for each of the invited guests who had taken part in the exercises of the evening. A light collation of cake and ice-cream was then served, and shortly after ten o'clock the meeting closed with the singing of the song 'Day is Dying in the West.'" From the poem mentioned we quote the following:

Before I step down I would like to make plain
The main force that prompts and helps much to maintain
The standard so high of this C. L. S. C.:
It lies in the hearts of our leaders so free,

Who put forth their strength and the talent that's rare;
With wisdom and zeal no exertion they spare.
Blest with such leaders, and a royal good crew,
Whatever is started just as surely goes through.

Quiet and easy do the "Hurlbuts" thus glide,
Moving so smoothly as if borne with the tide;
And so may it be, is the wish of its friend,
Onward and upward may their course ever tend.

CONNECTICUT.—A valuable help to the Chautauquans of New Haven is the Loan Library, consisting of the five books of the course, which are loaned to the members not possessing the required books and to all interested in the systematic Chautauqua plan; by this means several have been induced to join in the work. On December 4 a successful program was given in the First M. E. Church by the New Haven Chautauqua Union to review the book "Imperial Germany." The excellent papers treated of the subjects "The German Government," "The German Army," "German Society," and "German Domestic Life." Mark Twain's "The Awful German Language" was read, several musical selections were given, and the meeting closed by all singing in German "Die Wacht am Rhein."

NEW YORK.—The *Brooklyn Eagle* gives extended notice of the second annual banquet of the C.L.S.C. of Brooklyn and Long Island at Hotel St. George December 10. Nearly one hundred graduates were present and the occasion was one long to be remembered. The banquet was all that could be desired, and after all had partaken heartily the toastmaster, Rev. R. S. Pardington, called on a goodly number, who responded with true Chautauquan spirit. Printed programs are received of the Chautauqua Rally under the auspices of the Laurel Chautauqua Circle and Brooklyn Chautauqua Union Extension work held November 30 in the Lee Avenue Congregational Church. Talks were given regarding circle work and Miss Cornelia Adele Teal gave a reading entitled "The Evolution of Mrs. Thomas." The small number composing the Howard Circle does not hinder the intellectual growth of the members. The Chautauqua work in Brooklyn is surely holding its own.——Three members at Philmont are enjoying the reading.——The circle at Newfield is successfully reorganized.——Every Monday evening sees the Geneva Class of 1899 assembled for study. They are fifteen enthusiastic workers.——The Sodus Circle is again at work with renewed zeal.——Watkins Glen Circle has entered on its eighth year with twenty-four members. They meet Wednesday afternoons, and in addition to the regular work devote one half-hour to topics of the day.——Hawthorn Circle, Andover, organized in '83, has about fifteen readers this year.——The circle workers at Gainesville are mostly juniors.——Reports from Camden show the circle members to be making rapid progress.——Unabated enthusiasm characterizes the circles at Watertown, Stedman, and Ithaca.

NEW JERSEY.—Toms River and Basking Ridge both have excellent circles.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The fifty members reported from Elm Park Circle, Scranton, in the last CHAUTAUQUAN is increased to seventy-five, all enrolled at the central office. The Young Woman's Christian Association Circle is as ever a moving spirit in Scranton.——Allegheny Century Circle is giving strict attention to the work in hand.——Literary ability is fostered among the energetic members of Maclaren Circle, Philadelphia.——The members of Merion Square Circle, Gladwyne, are of two classes; active members who must keep up with the required reading and associate members who do not read the books but attend the meetings and listen to or take part in the discussions.——All the members of Mt. Pisgah Circle, East Mauch Chunk, continue the work from last year and a few new names are added.——Classes at Waterford, Hummelstown, and Philipsburg are faithful in the pursuance of duty.

DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.—A member of the Class of '89 in Washington contributes the following poem to fellow members of the C. L. S. C.:

All hail the good time coming,
Ye toilers of the earth—
This mighty tide of progress
In knowledge and true worth!

See education spreading
Wide over many lands,
By students vast in numbers,
Who work with head and hands.

No longer groping blindly
Amid God's wonders here,
They grasp the laws that govern all
On this revolving sphere.

The planets and their movements
Around the central sun,
The stars that glitter in the blue—
They know them every one.

They've read in rare translations
What's best in classic lore—
Have mastered many other things,
And still press on for more.

Then all should bless Chautauqua,
And fervently should pray
That God may guide its onward course
In his own perfect way.

MISSISSIPPI.—The little club at Aberdeen will continue the reading this year with five new readers.

ARKANSAS.—The juniors of Eureka Springs have three freshmen to swell their ranks.

TEXAS.—Memoranda for '96–97 is forwarded to Paris.

OHIO.—A local paper of Cincinnati gives an account of a delightful reception given by the Alpha to the Wesley Circle. Addresses were made, letters from absent members read, and music and recitations made up the program. Concerning the circles the paper says: "The Alpha is the pioneer C. L. S. C. in Cincinnati, and was organized at old Wesley in 1878. Miss O'Connell was its first president. Most of the old members have moved to other states; a few are still in the ranks and have continued with the Assembly courses nineteen years. They have taken nearly all the seals and are now engaged with a special Shakespeare course, which will extend over three years. Wesley Circle was organized last year. Mrs. Harkrader was its first president and was reelected this year. It has a membership of about twenty. There is a movement urged to have a reunion of all the Chautauqua circles in the city, which no doubt will be arranged. The C. L. S. C includes some of the most intellectual minds of the city, who are taking the courses for systematic training."——A large class of 1900's have reorganized in Portsmouth, and are now making a bold fight for the completion of the course with their class.——Faithful as ever is the circle at Fremont, which has one Pioneer and many other graduates, some of whom will take the Current History Course.

INDIANA.—Chautauquans of several different classes are joined in one circle at Jefferson.

ILLINOIS.—The Hyde Park Chautauqua Circle of Chicago has been organized and still has Dr. N. I. Rubinkam for its president. The name has recently been adopted. Six energetic people with no other name than plain "circle" are holding up the Chautauqua banner in Chicago, working conscientiously and receiving great benefit. The Oakland Circle of this city is making its presence felt through a lecture course given by W. O. Shepard, pastor of Oakland M. E. Church, taking up topics relative to the subjects studied. Some of the topics are: "Modern Europe: the Great Chess-Board," "The World's Debt to Rome," "Is our Civilization Permanent?" "Masters and Masterpieces."——The membership of the class at Elgin has reached twenty-two.

WISCONSIN.—Rapid strides are made by the readers at Oshkosh toward the completion of the work.

MINNESOTA.—"The C. L. S. C. class of Winona, which was organized last year and carried on by the earnest efforts of Mrs. F. S. Little, did good work with a membership of fourteen. The year closed with an entertainment given by the members, entitled 'Women of Athens.' This year began favorably with an additional membership of six."

IOWA.—The twenty active ladies of the Chautauqua circle of Gilman are very much alive, as is shown by the active part they take in the movements of their town. They have conceived the notion of an organization for the improvement of the appearance of the town. They met with the council and are now soliciting the cooperation of all interested in beautifying Gilman and have received, thus far, hearty support.——The circle in Des Moines known as the Oaklawn Circle is in its second year and the interest is commendable and encouraging. They have instituted the custom of having a social day each month, when a social hour and light refreshments follow a short program. This plan has proved very successful. Forest Home C. L. S. C. of this city is giving attention to literary matters of the Chautauqua Course.——Encouraging reports come from Winterset and Sheldon.——Ten enthusiastic readers are reported from Lime Springs. ——Newton and State Center find profit in systematic work.——Grundy Center Circle has increased from eight to seventeen.——A loyal Chautauquan from Bedford writes: "My initiation card to the C. L. S. C. in Onedia, Ill., was dated October 4, 1887. That was my seventieth birthday anniversary. I read every required reading during the four years, besides many hundred pages more bearing on the required themes. I will now say that this eighth decade has been one of the most fruitful and enjoyable of my life."

MISSOURI.—The importance of registering in the general C. L. S. C. is realized by the Pilgrims of St. Louis; with their large number of new names they now have about forty.——A great increase of interest is felt among the Ianthas of Carthage.——Faithful work is done by the students of Marshall. ——Strong circles are found in West Plains and Kansas City.

KANSAS.—This state is more than ever favorable to Chautauqua. Circles are found at Ottawa, Lawrence, and Leavenworth.——South Haven is proud of an energetic band of workers.——The Athenas of Lawrence meet Friday afternoons for two hours.

——Vincent Circle, of Paola, Class of 1900, is taking a firm hold of the work for the year.

CALIFORNIA.—William I. Day was appropriately celebrated by the Chautauquans at San José. The permanent organization of the circle was effected to the satisfaction of all.——Circles at Downey and Escondido are loyal Chautauquans.——Excellent work is done by the Peasant Circle at Pasadena.

OREGON.—"The Willamette Circle of Portland continues to grow and to maintain that spirit of enthusiasm and vigor that always means success. It is in itself a fit example of the superior beauty and merit of unselfish cooperation. At the meeting Monday evening, November 1, a unique program was carried out. After the usual discussions and review of the lessons, refreshments were brought in —a surprise to all but the committee and a few participants—after which affairs were conducted somewhat on the plan of a banquet. Toasts were proposed and responded to in a manner becoming the dignity and spirit of a literary organization, and as engendering cordial fellowship and happy good will it will ever be remembered as a profitable and delightful occasion."

NEW MEXICO.—The Cactus Circle at East Las Vegas is making a good start for the new year.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

Fiction. Again Marion Crawford has illustrated his power to produce fiction of great dramatic possibilities by a recent work entitled "Corleone."* In the personages he has created he has perfectly reproduced the Italian and Sicilian character, and in making the scene of action alternately Rome and Sicily he makes a corresponding change in the social environment, the quiet, dignified conventionalities of cultured Rome being replaced by the excitements and terrors of Sicilian brigandage. The members of the Saracinesca and Pagliuca families are the people most concerned in the events described, and the introduction of an American heiress serves to bring out more forcefully the unscrupulousness of that one of the Pagliuca brothers who had inherited the title Prince of Corleone. In the construction and development of the plot there is displayed much ingenuity. One of the Saracinesca brothers, Orsino, is the *fiancé* of the supposed sister of the Pagliucas, who own the Corleone estate in Sicily and who are on very friendly terms with the brigands. The estate is sold to Orsino's cousin, whom he accompanies to Sicily to take possession of the property. From this very simple beginning there is evolved a story full of thrilling events.

A volume of short stories by Flora Annie Steel is called "In the Permanent Way."† In these nineteen tales the author shows an unusual knowledge of Indian customs and traditions and in the easy style of a skilful writer she has conveyed her impressions to others.

From the stories of W. J. Dawson in "Thro' Lattice-Windows"‡ we learn that in Barford, an English town, there are many curious types of humanity, and homely though their lives may be they are not utterly void of the pleasures and sorrows which enter into the lives of people in less humble circumstances. The glimpses he gives us of life and character in this quiet town are full of pathos, with quiet suggestions of humor. Each of the nineteen stories in the collection is an interesting recital.

Readers of novels who are looking for something unique and original in the development of a plot should peruse "At the Cross-Roads."* It is the story of a young and aspiring London author who loses the manuscript of a story, supposedly by fire. It is heavily insured, and the insurance company refusing to pay the indemnity the author sues for the money, but loses the case. The company then has him arrested for attempting to obtain money under false pretenses, and after a jury trial he is sentenced to several years' imprisonment. The principal events of the story cover a period of many years after the young man's release from imprisonment, and the author, while cleverly portraying character and vividly describing scenes, artfully withholds the knowledge of what really happened to the manuscript until almost the close of the story.

There is a pleasing diversity in the phases of life which Hamlin Garland has depicted in "Wayside Courtships."† It is the ranchman, the prairie farmer, the lumberman, the minister, the lawyer, or the college student who has a place in at least one of the dozen stories of the collection, and every character and every tale the author has invested with a reality that is almost convincing in its force. There is not an uninteresting story in the volume.

Richard Malcolm Johnston is the author of a

* Corleone. A Tale of Sicily. By F. Marion Crawford. Two vols. 336+341 pp. $2.00.——† In the Permanent Way. By Flora Annie Steel. 400 pp. $1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

‡ Thro' Lattice-Windows. By W. J. Dawson. 384 pp. New York: Doubleday and McClure Co.

* At the Cross-Roads. By F. F. Montrésor. 425 pp.——† Wayside Courtships. By Hamlin Garland. 281 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

collection of short stories called "Old Times in Middle Georgia,"* nearly all of which have previously appeared in prominent periodicals. The author has made "old Mr. Pate" a prominent personage in the tales and often he relates in the *patois* of the time entertaining stories of his neighbors. There are other interesting characters, homely though they be, and the frequent touches of humor in the recital of romantic incidents gives to them a very pleasing piquancy.

Tolstoï's interpretation of Christ's teaching is embodied in a volume bearing the title "The Gospel in Brief,"† a translation from the Russian. It is not at all argumentative but a condensation of the four Gospels. Though many readers will find sentiments in it to criticize, it is interesting as an exposition of the principles on which was founded the belief of this noted man.

Miscellaneous.

"A study of the conditions of the production and distribution of literature from the fall of the Roman Empire to the close of the seventeenth century" is the sub-title of George Haven Putnam's "Books and Their Makers During the Middle Ages."‡ The second volume in point of time deals with literary production from 1500 to 1709, and the information it contains in regard to printed books is largely in the form of biographies of printer-publishers. In the last part of the volume is presented an account of the regulations and privileges of the book trade and the "development of the conception of literary property." A very comprehensive index completes the work and greatly increases its value as a book of reference.

A very complete account of the development of the art of music has been added to The International Scientific Series.‖ In the opening chapter the author gives his theory in regard to the origin of music. Then follow chapters on the evolution of the scale, folk-music, choral-music, instrumental music, the opera, and the sonata form, with a short disquisition on the tendencies of music. The work is written in a plain, pellucid style and to those interested in this particular art it will be especially valuable.

While Carpenter's Geographical Reader,§ as the author tells us, is intended primarily as a supplement to the study of geography, it also serves a high purpose as a book for the general reader. In a simple, perspicuous style Mr. Carpenter has written about the different governments of the Asiatic grand division, the people, their customs, and their habits, making a very complete picture of oriental life. Many excellent illustrations and several maps are valuable adjuncts to this volume.

The rules that guide polite society in New York are those upon which the author of "The Complete Bachelor"* has based his advice to young men. The statements are well expressed and contain information on the etiquette of dress, calls, cards, club life, the dinner, the dance, and a variety of other subjects interesting to the well-bred, genteel member of society.

There is much wholesome advice and common sense combined in "College Training for Women."† Lest too much be expected of a college, the opening chapter tells what it can do for young women. Preparatory training, the choice of a college, and life at the institution are subjects next presented, and these are followed by essays on the influence of the college woman in society and the home and the benefits of college training for women wage-earners. These thoughts are all presented in a simple yet forceful way and they are well worth reading.

"Polyhymnia"‡ is the title of a large collection of quartets, trios, and choruses for male voices. The selections are varied in character and they include sacred, national, and patriotic songs, besides a large number of songs of a miscellaneous character. Many of the compositions have been arranged from the works of some of the greatest composers. Among them are Abt, Beethoven, Mozart, Mendelssohn, Schubert, and Haydn. A frontispiece represents the artist's conception of Polyhymnia, the muse of song. The book is well printed and well bound.

Seventeen of the orations, addresses, and papers written by Dr. Henry Codman Potter are collected in a neatly bound volume under the title "The Scholar and the State."‖ The duties of the scholar and the Christian as a citizen, a business man, and a philanthropist are forcefully set forth in clear, concise English. Science in its relation to the present modes of life, music, social science, and the

* Old Times in Middle Georgia. By Richard Malcolm Johnston. 249 pp. $1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† The Gospel in Brief. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoï. 237 pp. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

‡ Books and Their Makers During the Middle Ages. By Geo. Haven Putnam, A.M. 548 pp. $2.50. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.

‖ The Evolution of the Art of Music. By C. Hubert H. Parry. 352 pp. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

§ Asia. By Frank G. Carpenter. 304 pp. New York, Cincinnati, and Chicago: American Book Company.

* The Complete Bachelor. By the author of the "As Seen by Him" papers. 218 pp. $1.25. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† College Training for Women. By Kate Holladay Claghorn, Ph.D. (Yale). 270 pp. $1.25. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

‡ Polyhymnia. A Collection of Quartets and Choruses for Male Voices. Compiled and arranged by John W. Tufts. 242 pp. New York, Boston, and Chicago: Silver, Burdett and Company.

‖ The Scholar and the State and other Orations and Addresses. By Henry Codman Potter, D.D., LL.D. 335 pp. New York: The Century Co.

American cathedral are other subjects of permanent interest treated in this collection.

In "Select Poems of Robert Burns"* the editor, Andrew J. George, M. A., has collected those poems he "has found suitable for the class-room and the home," thereby contributing much to the accomplishment of his purpose to establish a friendship between Burns and students of literature and create within them a love "of the matchless melody of a master song." The usual helps accompanying such a volume—introduction, notes, and glossary—are replete with interesting information.

One of Heath's English Classics series is entitled "The Princess."† This medley by Lord Tennyson is presented in a handy form for study, being plentifully supplied with notes, and the introduction gives the opinions of celebrated people concerning "The Princess." The book contains also a long list of biographical and critical references which will felicitate the student of Tennyson.

History. The author of "The Making of Pennsylvania" has continued the history of this division of the Union in a book entitled "Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth."‡ He first disproves the commonly accepted statement that William Penn was the originator of the plan to secure territory on the Delaware as a place of safety for persecuted Quakers. Then in a smooth, pleasant style he proceeds to tell of Penn's exploits, the administration of the different governors, the commercial and educational development of the colony, the revolutionary movement in Pennsylvania, and the subsequent rebellions which have occurred within the state. Pennsylvania's part in the Civil War and "The Pre-eminence of Philadelphia" are interesting subjects treated in two of the chapters, but the detailed history closes with an account of the Whisky Rebellion. Two maps—one of the colony and the other of the Gettysburg battlefield—accompany the text.

A most interesting work dealing with French history is entitled "The Evolution of France Under the Third Republic."‖ It is not a formal history but rather an argumentative presentation of political affairs in France, which includes a recital of important historical incidents since 1870. The author also sets forth in a masterly way the contemporary French character, giving the reader a clear idea of present-day life in France. The work has been translated into excellent English by Isabel F. Hapgood, and the introductory pages, which are of a biographical nature, are the work of Dr. Albert Shaw. More than a dozen excellent portraits of eminent Frenchmen make up the pictorial part of the volume.

A series of studies in United States history has the unique and appropriate title "With the Fathers."* It is a collection of essays by John Bach McMaster previously published in some of the prominent periodicals. In the presentation of the Monroe Doctrine there are letters from Madison to Monroe and the opinions concerning it expressed in English publications of 1824. That political corruption was not unknown before our time is shown by an account of a case of filibustering in the early history of the Pennsylvania assembly. The history of the "Know-nothings," the framing of the Constitution, the first inauguration, the possibility of sound finance under a government like that of the United States, Franklin's residence in France, and the acquisition of territory are other subjects which this able author treats in his well-known popular style.

Some of the marvelous and the extraordinary events which have influenced commercial conditions J. Macdonald Oxley has recounted in an easy style calculated to engage the attention of the youth of the land. There are thirteen of these tales, which the author has denominated "The Romance of Commerce."† They include accounts of John Law's speculation, the South Sea bubble, the tulip mania, the search for a northwest passage, the Canadian Pacific Railway, and other enterprises in different countries of the world during the past centuries. The recitals are full of interesting information, which is told in a way to be easily remembered.

"The War of Greek Independence"‡ is the title of an historical work by W. Alison Phillips. The events between 1821 and 1833 the author has set forth in a plain, lucid manner. Although the volume is not the result of original research, as the preface states, it serves the purpose of a larger work on the same subject, bringing before the reader facts which will help him the more easily to comprehend the significance of recent events in Greece.

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* Select Poems of Robert Burns. Edited, with introduction, notes, and a glossary, by Andrew J. George, M. A. 408 pp. 90 cts.——† The Princess. By Alfred Lord Tennyson. Edited with introduction and notes by Andrew J. George, M. A. 233 pp. 90 cts. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co.

‡ Pennsylvania: Colony and Commonwealth. By Sydney George Fisher. 455 pp. Philadelphia: Henry T. Coates and Company.

‖ The Evolution of France Under the Third Republic. By Baron Pierre de Coubertin. Translated from the French by Isabel F. Hapgood. Authorized Edition. 471 pp. $3.00. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

* With the Fathers. Studies in the History of the United States. By John Bach McMaster 334 pp. $1.50. New York: D. Appleton and Company.

† The Romance of Commerce. By J. Macdonald Oxley, LL. B., B. A. 258 pp. New York and Boston: Thomas Y. Crowell & Company.

‡ The War of Greek Independence. By W. Alison Phillips. With map. 428 pp. $1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

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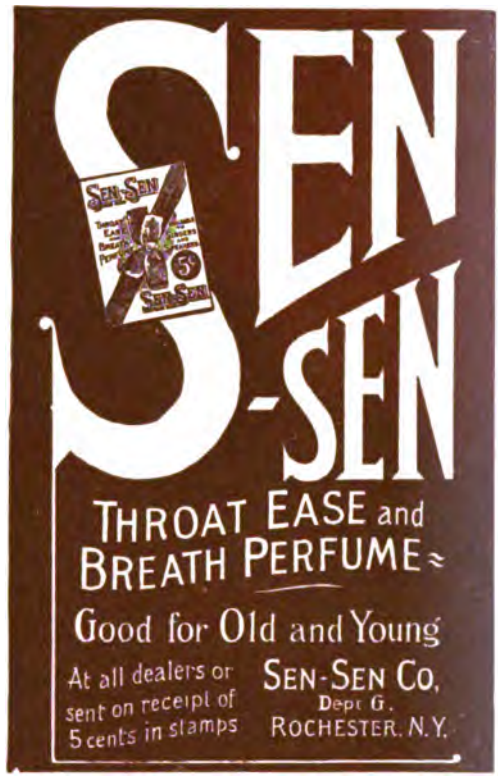

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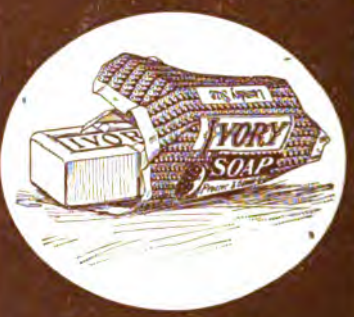

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REQUIRED READING FOR THE CHAUTAUQUA LITERARY AND SCIENTIFIC CIRCLE.

POINTS OF A PILGRIMAGE.*

BY S. PARKES CADMAN, D. D.

NORMAN GATEWAY, LUDLOW CASTLE.

ONE may often hear the familiar tones of the ubiquitous American on the shady side of Pall Mall and beneath the limes of the Unter den Linden. Murray and Baedeker become wearisome after a time and the famous sights of Europe end by being painfully familiar. But far removed from the intrusion of the summer excursionist, unknown to guide-books or to fame, are quiet nooks and unfrequented spots where the initiated few may find rest to their souls.

Especially is this true of England, and of no part of that island is it more true than of the ancient county of Shropshire. This little province, with about thirty thousand inhabitants, is situated upon the western fringe of the midland counties, looking out upon the distant hills of Wales ramped against the sky. There are more than thirty castles in Shropshire, with churches, both collegiate and parochial, by the hundred. When the Plantagenets conquered Wales, they lined the frontiers with these baronial establishments, so that to-day this stretch of territory is literally stuffed with reminiscences in art, history, and architecture.

While searching for Stanley Weyman, the author of "Under the Red Robe" and "The Gentleman of France," I discovered Ludlow, the little town where these stirring romances were written. It boasts a grand old ruin, a fortress large enough to contain the whole of its present population, and a church which far outvies that of Trinity in New York City. Mr. Weyman I did not find, for he had gone to London town to take unto himself a wife; so, after cooling down my hot disappointment, I visited this

*The Notes on the Required Reading in THE CHAUTAUQUAN will be found following those on the books of the course, in the C. L. S. C. Department of the magazine.

Norman castle, with its stately keep and dark, forbidding dungeons, now exposed with shattered wall and roofless halls to wind and weather. For eight hundred years it survived, in times rude and distracted. The state apartments have witnessed many a gallant throng, but the routs and the carnivals were outnumbered by the riots and the bloodshed and by the plottings of deadly treason. We have had no ruins since Chicago was rebuilt after the fire, and however much one may be fascinated by medieval splendors it is well to reflect that these gloomy castle vaults and dungeons sorely harassed and oppressed the yeomen and merchants who lived beneath the shadow of their walls.

LUDLOW CASTLE.

But Ludlow Castle is interesting for other reasons than these. The garrulous guide checked his ceaseless hints about his fee long enough to tell us how the little princes who were afterward smothered in the Tower were taken from this place to meet their cruel uncle, the Duke of Gloucester. In the gateway over the entrance Samuel Butler wrote his "Hudibras" in 1633. Here was performed, during the residence of the Earl of Bridgewater, John Milton's "Masque of Comus," the first-fruits of descriptive poetry in the English language. I saw the bench on which he sat when he wrote this glorious poem, with the wooded hills in which the plot of the drama was laid stretching away to the right.

The old Church of St. Lawrence is named after the patron saint who is said to have endured martyrdom by being roasted on a gridiron. A stained glass window in the chancel commemorates this legend, and scattered around the nave and transepts are the monuments of Knights Templars and crusaders and famous warriors and presidents of the Welsh territory, with abbots, bishops, and deans of the pre-Reformation times. Across the street, with its quaint, old-fashioned houses, high-gabled and dormer-windowed, is the Feathers Inn, a typical hostelry of the Stuart period, a half-timbered, black and white residence, with capacious hearths where an ox could be roasted, flanked by a sheep on either side.

The next morning, after a pleasant slum-

ber in one of its lavender-scented beds, I left the Feathers Inn, traveling down the Severn valley to gaze upon a mountain which is said to be the oldest in the world, and compared with which the Andes and the Rockies are only enterprising juveniles. This hill is known as the Wrekin. It rises from the rich fallows and lowlands of the Severn valley, a solitary, precipitous landmark on the right side of the stream, densely wooded to the summit, and reproducing in a milder form the landscape of Lake Constance. On the opposite side of the river the gray towers of Buildwas Abbey appeared above the foliage. The monks who built it recognized a prosperous situation at a glance. They had a correct topographical eye, had these worthy brethren of the gown and cord. They seldom blundered then, nor do they now, when they choose a site for a monastery, a cathedral, or a church. The prospect around the foot-hills of the Wrekin was a glorious one. Rich meadows stretched the whole length of the valley, the sleek cattle standing knee-deep in the herbage; the shining river, flecked by the light and

FEATHERS INN, LUDLOW.

THE WREKIN, THE OLDEST MOUNTAIN IN THE WORLD.

BUILDWAS ABBEY.

shade, ran on toward Worcester, where in the old days of civil war Cromwell obtained his "crowning mercy" in battle; the corn-fields on the uplands nodded their tasseled heads to the ruffle of the breeze, and the honeysuckles clambered with odorous tenderness over the hedge-rows separating the fields.

As I stood and gazed upon the scene, I admired the goodly heritage of the Cistercian brethren of Buildwas. What with beeves in the stall and deer in the forest and fish in the stream and rights immemorial and freedom from labor and taxation, no wonder they grew fat and kicked, so that at last bluff King Hal made their habitation desolate, cutting off their inheritance and laughing at their fierce and unholy maledictions.

From the oldest hill in the world to the first iron bridge ever built by man is but a step. That bridge lies in full view around the bend of the river from the abbey, and the place where it is built is called Ironbridge, in honor of this engineering feat of the last century. The Friends settled in this spot two hundred years ago and unstripped its wealth of coal and iron and clay, founding the celebrated manufactories of the neighborhood. From these came the bridge, standing to-day as firmly as when it was

CHURCH OF ST. LAWRENCE.

built. I sauntered on leisurely toward the famous Colport china factories, a couple of miles down the stream. The warehouses here contain some of the rarest treasures that could delight a feminine heart. This firm obtained the first premium for its exhibit at the World's Fair in Chicago in 1893. A dinner service designed for the emperor of Russia was of such cameo-like beauty and delicate tint as to give more pleasure to a bevy of English girls who were discussing it than it probably would to the emperor himself.

Over the shoulder of a steep hill to the left is Madeley, the home of the "seraphic doctor" of the second Reformation, John Fletcher. This great divine, the friend of the Wesleys and the prince of controversialists, officiated in this parish for many years. His pulpit and parsonage are still preserved, but the church in which he ministered has been replaced by another building. A few miles to the south lived Richard Baxter, the friend of John Hampden and the author of "The Saints' Everlasting Rest."

And now, turning back, one skirts the moorlands on the east side of the Wrekin to reach the ancient Roman town of Uriconium. This is the spot where the last great struggle of the British clans was made against the Roman eagle, and here, too, when Rome was in decay, the rude woodsmen burst upon their erstwhile conquerors in a fury of massacre which left the "White Town," as it was called, a smoking ruin and a scene of slaughter. Wild, billowy land lay all around, and upon the distant horizon the smoke of the city of Birmingham rose and stood in the summer sky like a gray veil of mist. In the opposite direction the spires of Shrewsbury pierced the haze. On a great block of stone left by some indifferent glacier I sat and surveyed one of those charming landscapes which make England the garden of the gods. One could little imagine from the red brick remnants of Uriconium, as they exist to-day, that these walls were built long ere St. Paul had laid his head on the block at Rome, and that Uriconium was twice the size of the London of its day, with a wall around it nearly three miles in length, a part of which stands still, massive and imposing as of yore. The Saxon poet of a later time sang in piteous strains the requiem of Uriconium. He speaks of the town in the valley, gleam-

THE OLDEST IRON BRIDGE IN THE WORLD.

ing among the green woodlands, of the hall of its chieftain left without fire, light, or song, and of the silence of death broken only by the screaming eagle that wheels down from the Wrekin's sullen crest and hovers over the places of the slain.

ABBEY CHURCH, SHREWSBURY.

And now for Shrewsbury, the capital town of Shropshire. I passed a little hamlet known as Cressage, an abbreviated name for Christ's Oak. Here there stood in the days of the Saxons a huge oak tree beneath which the Northumbrian missionaries preached Christianity to the heathen. The pastoral simplicity of this scene linked itself in one's thought with the opulent strength of our own commonwealth of America. Those Northumbrian missionaries builded better than they knew, for the church they thus founded among the rude savages of the forests continued until the time of the men of the *Mayflower*, and its

SHREWSBURY FROM THE BANK OF THE SEVERN RIVER.

teaching and ethics and devotion to duty were part of the inestimable cargo which landed on Plymouth Rock.

In July, 1403, the broad plateau across which I walked was filled with armed hosts. The Percies of Northumberland had broken out against Henry IV., and the contending armies met at this place in the decisive conflict which set the Lancastrian dynasty upon the throne of England. Here it was that Falstaff fought for a full hour by Shrewsbury clock. Eight thousand knights and yeomen lay dead after the conflict, among them being the brave Hotspur Percy, the son of the Earl of Northumberland. Shakespeare calls it "the truly sad and sorry field of Shrewsbury."

An hour's ride from the village inn brought me to the abbey church of the ancient and honorable town inhabited by the proud Salopians, as the men of Shrewsbury are wont to term themselves. I was in good time to join in the even-song and vesper service being held. De Quincey, in one of his best essays, mentions the influence of the collect of the Anglican liturgy, "Lighten our darkness, we beseech thee," and in his own unique way describes the emotions produced by the gracious words, "defend us from all perils and dangers of this night." The service was over, the light deepened into the twilight, and the pillared spaces of the stately minster grew more gloomy and more grand. In the cool of the evening air a sense of tranquil restoration stole over one as the words of the parting hymn were recalled:

> The radiant morn is passed away,
> And, spent too soon its golden store,
> The shadows of the parting day
> Creep on once more.

The next morning I started out to see the town. In the market square and the adjacent streets are the old-time houses of dignity and consequence which have made Shrewsbury the metropolis of North Wales. The site upon which it is built is a fortress designed by nature and so quaintly picturesque and beautiful is its situation that in Saxon and Norman times, in the Wars of the Roses, and in the civil war it still maintained its rights and privileges as the great frontier fortress overlooking the conquered territory of the gallant Welshman. Lord Macaulay says: "In the language of the gentry for many miles around the Wrekin, to go to Shrewsbury was to go to town." The grammar school is one of the Tudor foundations which have done so much for education in England. In the past, Sir Philip Sidney, the famous, and Judge Jeffrey, the infamous, were educated here, and in our own day it has gained a world-wide distinction as the birthplace of Charles Darwin. The Church of St. Mary, with its marvelous examples of transition work, its splendid windows and other treasures, is the chief architectural ornament of the town, but it also has the abbey church where I had worshiped on the previous night, and the refectory pulpit of a former great religious house, which has left behind it only these two relics, the abbey and the pulpit. Here, too, lived Lord Hill, one of Wellington's trusted lieutenants, and Clive was born a few miles away, the man who conquered India and turned its riches into the coffers of the empire.

And here the pilgrimage must cease; but enough has been said to show that England is prolific of interest in many quarters where her treasures of antiquarian lore and historical importance have not been even suspected, and I would urge upon my readers the advisability of seeing such places whenever they visit England.

INDIAN CORN IN COLONIAL TIMES.

BY ALICE MORSE EARLE.

A GREAT field of Indian corn, waving its stately and luxuriant green blades, its graceful spindles and glossy silk under the hot August sun, should be not only a beautiful sight to every descendant of Pilgrims or Puritans, but a suggestive one. A native of American soil, already at the time of the settlement of this country under control of the sons of the New World, its abundance, adaptability, and nourishing qualities not only saved the colonists' lives but altered many of their methods of living, notably those of cooking and their tastes in food.

A field of corn on the coast of Massachusetts or Narragansett or by the rivers of Virginia, growing long before any white man had ever been seen on these shores, was precisely like the same field planted three hundred years later by the American farmer. There was the same planting in hills, the same number of stalks in the hill, with pumpkin vines running among the hills and beans climbing the stalks. The hills of the Indians were a trifle nearer together than those of our own day are usually set, for the native soil was more fertile.

The English colonists learned early in the day that they could not depend on European food supplies. In Virginia they had many starving-times before all were convinced that corn was a better crop for settlers than wine, silk, or any of the many hoped-for profitable productions which could not be eaten. Powhatan, the father of Pocahontas, was one of the first to "send some of his People that they may teach the English how to sow the Grain of this Country." Capt. John Smith, ever quick to learn of every one, and ever practical, got two Indians in the year 1608 to show him how to break up and plant forty acres of corn, which yielded to him a good crop. The governor, Sir Thomas Dale, equally practical, intelligent, and determined, assigned small individual farms to each colonist, and encouraged and enforced the growing of corn. Soon many thousand bushels were raised. There was an Indian massacre in 1622, for the careless colonists, in order to be free to give nearly all of their time to the raising of that new and exceedingly valuable crop, tobacco, had given the Indians firearms to go hunting game for them, and the lesson of easy killing, when once learned, was tried upon the white men. The following year comparatively little corn was planted, as the luxuriant foliage made a perfect ambush for the close approach of the savages to the settlements. Then of course there was, as a result, scarcity and famine. A bushel of corn-meal was worth twenty to thirty shillings, which sum had a value equal to twenty or thirty dollars to-day. The planters were, however, each compelled by law the following year to raise a certain amount of corn to supply the families, and there has been no lack of corn since in Virginia.

The stores brought over by the Pilgrims were poor and inadequate enough; the beef and pork were tainted, the fish rotten, the butter and cheese corrupted. European wheat and seeds did not mature well. Soon, as Bradford says in his now famous "Log-Book," in his picturesque and forcible English, "the grim and grizzled face of starvation stared" at them. The readiest supply to replenish the scant larder was fish, but the English made surprisingly bungling work over fishing, and the most unfailing and valuable supply was the native Indian corn, or "Guinny wheat," or "Turkie wheat," as it was called by the colonists.

Famine and pestilence had left eastern Massachusetts comparatively bare of inhabitants at the time of the settlement of Plymouth; and the vacant corn-fields of the dead Indian cultivators were taken and planted by the weak and emaciated Ply-

mouth men, who never could have cleared new fields. From the teeming sea, in the April run of fish, was found the needed fertilizer. Says Governor Bradford:

> In April of the first year they began to plant ther corne, in which service Squanto stood them in great stead, showing them both ye manner how to set it, and after, how to dress and tend it.

From this planting sprang not only the most useful food, but the first and most pregnant industry of the colonists.

The first fields and crops were communal, and the result was disastrous. The third year, at the sight of the paralyzed settlement, Governor Bradford wisely decided, as did Governor Dale of Virginia, that "they should set corne every man for his owne particuler, furnishing a portion for public officers, fishermen, etc., who could not work, and in that regard trust to themselves." Thus personal energy succeeded to communal inertia; Bradford wrote that women and children cheerfully worked in the fields to raise corn which should be their very own.

The culture of Indian corn not only insured domestic comfort and plenty to the colonists everywhere, but it brought a large profit and means of exchange. Although the Indians raised large quantities they were so improvident and gluttonous that they soon had to buy corn of the white men when it was scarce, and often on very usurious credit. An instance is given in "New England's Plantation" where a settler planted thirteen gallons of seed and raised from it three hundred and sixty-four bushels of corn. This he sold to the Indians for beaver; his profits when the beaver was sold were £327.

Maize also proved an available and much-needed currency for carrying on the internal trade. In October, 1631, the Massachusetts court passed an ordinance that corn be received in payment for debts, unless money or beaver were named in the contract. The consequential magistrates, as soon as the value of corn was realized, at once attempted to control commerce in it. A license from the governor was demanded to permit the purchase of corn from ships. Export of corn was forbidden, and the court named ten citizens who were allowed to buy an entire ship's cargo, store it, and sell it at a profit not above five per cent. Soon corn was made a universal legal tender.

The price of corn varied from year to year. In 1631 it was ten shillings a bushel; the following year it would not bring five shillings. Then for ten years it wavered from two shillings sixpence to five shillings. In 1658 it was eight shillings, in 1672 and 1693 two shillings a bushel. In 1747 it had gone up to twenty shillings, the next year to thirty-two, and in 1751 was but two shillings. The apparently exorbitant prices of pre-revolutionary times, as high as even one hundred shillings a bushel, are partly owing to the depreciation of currency. By the end of the century the old prices prevailed. In all these apparent variations in prices through the manipulations of the miserable currency by the legislature we must remember that the noble maize still furnished just so much food, was indeed always valuable, and thus was itself the standard of value rather than measured by any other unreliable and shifting standard.

The Dutch, fond of all cereal foods, took to their liking and their kitchens with speed the various forms of corn food. The English were much slower in acquiring a taste for it, and the French fiercely hated it, as have the Irish in our own day. A band of Frenchwomen settlers fairly raised a "petticoat rebellion" in revolt against its daily use. A despatch of the governor of Louisiana says of these rebels:

> The men in the colony begin through habit to use corn as an article of food; but the women, who are mostly Parisians, have for this food a dogged aversion, which has not been subdued. They inveigh bitterly against His Grace the Bishop of Quebec, who, they say, has enticed them away from home under pretext of sending them to enjoy the milk and honey of the land of promise.

This hatred of corn was shared by other races. An old writer says:

> Peter Martyr could magnifie the Spaniards, of whom he reports they led a miserable life for three days together, with parched grain of maize onlie—

which, when compared with the diet of New

England settlers for weeks at a time, seems such a bagatelle as to be scarce worth the mention of Peter Martyr. By tradition, still commemorated at Forefathers' Dinners, the ration of Indian corn supplied to each person in the colony in time of famine was but five kernels.

The colonists quickly learned from the Indians to harvest, grind, and cook the corn in many palatable ways. And the foods made from maize have retained to this day the names given by the aborigines, such as hominy, pone, suppawn, samp, succotash. Samp and samp porridge were soon favorite dishes. Samp is Indian corn pounded to a coarsely ground powder in a mortar. Roger Williams wrote of it:

> Nawsamp is a kind of meal pottage unparched. From this the English call their samp, which is the Indian corn beaten and boiled and eaten hot or cold with milk and butter, and is a diet exceeding wholesome for English bodies.

The laborious Indian method of preparing maize for consumption was to steep it in hot water for twelve hours, then to pound the grain in a mortar till it was a coarse meal. It was then sifted in a small basket, and the large grains which did not pass through the primitive sieve were again pounded and sifted.

Samp was often pounded in a primitive and picturesque Indian mortar made of a hollowed block of wood or a stump of a tree. The pestle was a heavy block of wood shaped like the interior of the mortar and fitted with a handle attached to one side. This block was fastened to the top of a growing sapling, which was bent over and thus acquired the required spring back after the block or pestle was pounded down on the corn. Pounding samp was slow work, often done in later years by unskilled negroes, and hence disparagingly termed "niggering" corn. Beating the mortar was ever deemed hard and exhausting work. Thomas Cocke, of Henrico County, Va., bequeathed a mulatto girl to his daughter, but specified in his will that the girl was not to "beat at the mortar or work in the ground." After those simple spring-mortars were abandoned elsewhere they were used on Long Island, and it was jestingly told that skippers in a fog could always get their bearings off the Long Island coast because they could hear the pounding of the samp-mortars.

Rude hand mills, called quernes, or quarnes, next were used by the English; the word is frequently seen in old inventories, and some are still in existence and known as samp-mills. Windmills followed, of which the Indians were much afraid, dreading "their long arms and great teeth biting the corn in pieces." As soon as maize was plentiful mills were started in many towns; a windmill at Watertown in 1631, the second at Lynn in 1633. The same year the first water-mill, at Dorchester, was built. In Ipswich a grist-mill was built in 1635, and there was a tide-mill at Salem in 1640.

The first windmill erected in America was one built and set up by Governor Yeardley in Virginia in 1621; a water-mill was built the same year. By 1649 there were five water-mills, four windmills, and a great number of horse and hand-mills in Virginia. Millers had one sixth of the meal they ground for toll.

Samp porridge was a derivative of Indian and Dutch parentage. It was samp cooked in Dutch fashion, like a hodgepot, with salt beef or pork and potatoes and other roots, such as carrots and turnips. These were boiled together in a vast kettle, usually in large quantity, as the porridge was better liked after many hours' cooking. A week's supply for a family was often cooked at one time. After much boiling a strong crust was formed next the pot, and sometimes the porridge was lifted out of the pot bodily by the crust and served crust and all.

Suppawn, another favorite of the settlers, was an Indian dish made from Indian corn; it was a thick corn-meal and milk porridge. It soon was seen on every Dutch table, and is spoken of by all travelers in early New York and in the southern colonies. Johnson tells that the Indians "boiled pudding made of Indian corn, putting in great store of black berries," which were apparently our huckleberries. The Swedish scientist Professor Kahn told that the Indians gave

him "fresh maize-bread, baked in an oblong shape, mixed with dried huckleberries, which lay as close in it as raisins in a plum pudding." Wood, in his "New England Prospects," thus defines no-cake or nokick:

It is Indian corn parched in the hot ashes, the ashes being sifted from it; it is afterward beaten to powder and put into a long leatherne bag trussed at their backe like a knapsacke out of which they take three spoonsfull a day.

It was held to be the most sustaining food known, and in the most condensed form. Both Indians and white men carried it in a pouch on long journeys and mixed it with snow in the winter and water in summer. Bradford and all the contemporary writers note its wonderful nourishing qualities. Roger Williams says a spoonful of this meal and water made him many a good meal, which certainly proves his great asceticism. Gookin says it was sweet, toothsome, and hearty. With only this nourishment the Indians could carry loads "fitter for elephants than men." Roger Williams said that sukquttahhash was corn seethed like beans. Our word succotash is applied to corn seethed with beans. Pones were the red men's appones.

Hasty pudding has been made in England of wheat flour or oatmeal and milk, and the name was given to boiled puddings of corn-meal and water. It was not a very suitable name, for corn-meal should never be cooked hastily, but requires long boiling or baking. The hard Indian pudding boiled in a bag and slightly sweetened was everywhere made. It was told that many New England families had three hundred and sixty-five such puddings in a year.

Strachey, writing of the Indians in 1618, said:

They lap their corn in rowles within the leaves of the corne and so boyle yt for a dayntie.

This method of cooking we have also retained to the present day.

The love of the aborigines for "roasting ears" was quickly shared by the white man. In Virginia a series of plantings from the first of April to the last of June afforded a three months' succession of roasting ears. Winthrop explains with care that when corn is parched it turns entirely inside out and is "white and flowry within"—the Puritan children's pop-corn.

Many games were played with the aid of kernels of corn; fox and geese, checkers, "hull gull, how many," and games in which the corn served as counters.

The virtues of "jonny-cake" have been loudly sung in the interesting pages of "Shepherd Tom." The way the corn should be carried to the mill, the manner in which it should be ground, the way in which the stones should revolve, and the kind of stones, receive minute description, as does the mixing and the baking, to the latter of which the middle board of red oak from the head of a flour-barrel is indispensable as a bake-board, while the fire to bake with must be of walnut logs. Hasty pudding, corn dumplings, and corn-meal porridge, so eminently good that it was ever mentioned with respect in the plural, as "them porridge," all are described with the exuberant joyousness of a happy, healthful old age in remembrance of a happy, high-spirited, and healthful youth.

A special use of corn should be noted. By order of the Massachusetts government in 1623 it was used as ballots in public voting. At elections of the governor's assistants a kernel of corn was deposited to signify a favorable vote upon the nominee, while a bean signified a negative vote, "and if any freeman shall put in more than one Indian corn or beane he shall forfeit for every such offence Ten Pounds."

The harvesting of the corn afforded one of the few scenes of gaiety in the lives of the colonists. A diary of one Ames, of Dedham, Mass., in the year 1767, thus describes a corn-husking, and most ungallantly says naught of the red ear and attendant osculation:

Made a husking Entertainm't. Possibly this leafe may last a Century and fall into the hands of some inquisitive Person for whose Entertainm't I will inform him that now there is a Custom amongst us of making an Entertainment at husking of Indian Corn whereto all the neighboring Swains are invited and after the Corn is finished they like the Hottentots give three Cheers or huzza's but cannot carry in the husks without a Rhum bottle; they feign

great Exertion but do nothing till Rhum enlivens them, when all is done in a trice, then after a hearty Meal about 10 at Night they go to their pastimes.

It is a curious and significant fact to know that the first patent for an invention issued in England to an American was for a preparation of Indian corn; still more curious that it was the invention of a woman—Mrs. Sibylla Masters, of Philadelphia. It was granted to her husband, but the plain statement was made that it was the invention of Mistress Masters, and was "for the sole Use and Benefit of a new Invencon found out by Sibylla his wife for Cleaning and Curing the Indian Corn growing in the Severall Colonies."

This application was accompanied by a rude drawing of the proposed machine and a description by the inventor. The manufacture was called "Tuscarora rice," and was like hominy, and, it was asserted, was a cure for many ills, including consumption. The patent was granted in November, 1713, and was numbered 401. The inventor set up a mill in Philadelphia for the manufacture of this "Tuscarora rice," but her "fond dreams of hope" in this invention came to naught, as did also, apparently, another project of Mistress Masters, "for the Sole Working and Weaving in a new Method Palmetto Chips and Straws for covering Hats and Bonnets."

THE INGENUITY OF ANTS AND WASPS.

BY ANNA BOTSFORD COMSTOCK, B. S.

SO perfect is socialism among ants that even slavery is robbed of some of its evils. The question may well be asked why slavery should be needed when once a perfect socialism is established. This can be answered by considering the fact that selfishness is in this case characteristic of the community rather than of the individual. Slaves are of great economic importance to an ant colony, although the direct benefit to any individual in the ant-hill is nothing easily discoverable.

When a slave-making colony sets out on an expedition for capturing slaves, the warriors march in solid column to the nests of the victims and throw themselves upon it with great fury. Their object, however, is robbery and not murder. They never attempt to enslave the mature ants but take the young grubs to be brought up in future slavery. They have no intention of exterminating the slave colonies, and thus shut off future supplies; therefore they do not kill any more of the defenders than is necessary in order to capture the larvæ. The young slaves carried to the nests of their captors are there cared for as tenderly as their masters' own children, and when they reach the adult stage they work as cheerfully as they would have done in their own nests. They share the *esprit de corps* of their adopted country, as is shown by the fact that when their masters return from a marauding expedition laden with live booty the slaves rush out to meet them joyfully and help them to bring in the stolen larvæ, but when the masters come home empty-handed the slaves are surly and sometimes even refuse for a time to let them come back into the nests.

That the object of the slave-makers in carrying off the young of the slave species is to get workers for their own colony is clearly evinced by the modifications of the habits of the masters made by the presence of slaves in their nests. All of the slave-making species become more or less dependent upon their slaves. The tendency is for the slaves to do the work of the commune, leaving the fighting for their masters. The Amazon ants described by Huber have become so dependent on their slaves that they have no longer the ability to make their nests, feed their young, or even feed themselves. Huber made a famous experiment by putting thirty of the Amazons with their young in a box with some food. All of them were on the verge of starvation and

some were even dead, when Huber introduced one of their slaves, who immediately resuscitated the fainting Amazons by feeding them, took care of the young, made a nest, and, single-handed, established order. The Amazons had only retained the power of fighting, for they were still most skilful and intrepid warriors. An instance of their martial acumen is shown in observations by Huber: When they attacked the nests of their usual slaves, the pacific negro ants, they made the onslaught in solid column, made sure of their booty, and then scattered in disorder, each reaching the home nest as best she could. The negro ants are not good fighters, so this method of retreat was feasible. When there were no negro nests to pillage, the Amazons enslaved the miner ants, who are brave and tenacious fighters and follow the foe to their own gates rather than give up their young to slavery. When the Amazons attacked the miner nests they not only approached in solid column, but retreated in solid column, being thus enabled to meet their assailants to better advantage and showing themselves possessed of strategic powers of no mean sort.

The reasons for war among social insects, so far as we may observe, are based upon a sense of ownership of property; *i. e.*, robbery of stored food, taking of slaves, and infringement of territorial rights. The wars may exist between different colonies of the same species or between different species. Among ants the different species vary greatly as to bravery and skill in warfare. The battles are fought by hand-to-hand conflict, and as the pre-gunpowder battles in our own history were most deadly, so are these ant battles, which only stop when there are no more soldiers left to fight. The weapons of the ant warrior are always strong jaws and in some species a venomous sting; our common species have the power of forcibly ejecting the very irritating formic acid, a sort of emmet vitriol.

The most skilled fighters among the species of ants march to battle in a solid column; when once there the mêlée resolves itself into a series of duels. Two enemies, approaching each other rear on their hind legs, throw acid on each other, and then close in deadly combat, each trying to cut the other in two. Often when two are struggling thus with each other help will arrive from either side; then there is a trial of strength among many, and an effort to take prisoners. Woe to the captured warrior, for "no quarter to prisoners" is one of the laws of emmet wars and death comes swiftly and surely to the stranger within the gates of an ant republic. As night falls upon the battle-field there is a retreat of the soldiers to their respective cities, but morning finds them at their posts again with valor undiminished. The carnage of these battles is terrible to behold. The field is strewn with the remains of the dead and dying; two enemies are often found clenched in deadly embrace. The ant is the bulldog of the insect world; when she once gets hold she never lets go; though she may be torn in twain, her jaws will not relax. Many an ant victor wears involuntarily all her life as a trophy of her prowess the head of her vanquished enemy, firmly fixed by its jaws to her leg.

The architecture of social insects is marvelous in its skilful adaptation to the needs of the commune. For ages the beauty and regularity of honeycomb have been the wonder and delight of mathematicians, who have shown its economy by much computation. Some have claimed that the hexagonal cell was a matter of necessity, the result of pressure; but as the bees start the cells at their bases in hexagonal shape, and as they hollow out a triangular pyramid, a perfect rhomb, in the bottom of the cell, I think we must accede to them some powers of the geometrician. Surely no mansions made of marble carven by the hand of man are more wonderful or beautiful in their structure than a perfect honeycomb. The power of bees to take industrial advantage of a situation is shown by the readiness with which they use the commercial foundation-comb introduced by apiarists to save their bees the expense of wax-making.

Wasps were the first and original paper-makers, and as geometricians and architects vie with their relatives the bees. One

has only to study the stories in that gray apartment house called a wasps' nest to wonder at and admire the skill of the builders. The wasps build their nests of a material made by gathering bits of weather-worn wood and chewing them up, making a true paper pulp. These builders are equal to emergencies. Once we involuntarily unroofed a wasps' nest that was under a board. Several days later we discovered that the nest was well roofed by neat paper shingles. Never before, probably, had these wasps or their ancestors been called upon to roof a domicile, but these did this original work with much show of the knowledge of the principles of roof construction.

Ants' nests vary greatly in form and method of building. The most familar of these are our own so-called ant-hills. Such a nest consists of deep underground galleries, above which is piled a mound of earth, also full of galleries and very well fitted for housing the commonwealth.

Of all the species of ants of the United States, the agricultural ants show the greatest skill in city building and municipal improvements. The most interesting of these are the so-called flat-disk nests. These disks mark the position of the underground nest, and vary in size from four to ten feet in diameter. They are level and hard, and kept free from all vegetation, except at certain seasons when a species of grass, upon whose seeds the ants feed, is allowed to grow. Near the center of a disk are one or two openings; these gates open into vestibules below, from which galleries lead to a system of rooms arranged in regular stories. These rooms are used as granaries and nurseries, and the nest may extend several feet below the surface of the ground. From the disks radiate roads leading out into the fields. These roads are hard and smooth, are two or three inches wide at the opening on the disk, and are sometimes sixty feet long; they are evidently made to facilitate the work of the harvesters when bringing home their grain. If, during the winter, when the ants are underground, there is a growth of any sort upon the disks, or roads, it is cut down in the spring and everything cleared up.

These ants, as observed by Mr. McCook, were skilful engineers when cutting down the tough grass. The twisting process was often resorted to in severing a stem, and the use of the lever seemed to be understood, as they were observed to cut a blade at its base, then climb it to the end, thus bending it over and completing the fracture. The food of these ants is grain of different kinds, which is gathered when ripe, taken to the granaries, hulled, and stored for winter use. These are the ants which take their seeds out to dry after the rains. The grass which they allow to grow on their disks is called ant rice. The older observers believed that they planted it there, but this is not proven. However, they evidently find it useful or they would destroy it as they do other grasses.

The identity of interests in insect societies is shown in many ways; but perhaps in no better way than the cheerfulness with which they feed each other and the good nature which they evince toward each other in their crowded nests when carrying on their common industries. Methods of communication approaching to language exist among social insects, but what they say or exactly how they say it is as yet largely a mystery to us. They can inform each other of the discovery of food, as is shown by many experiments. Sentinels are enabled by some means to arouse and alarm a whole colony with great celerity. But perhaps nothing is so wonderful about them as their ability to recognize members of their own commonwealth. This is a power beyond our ken, and cannot be compared with our recognition of individuals. Lubbock has shown that ants of the same nest recognize each other after being separated for nearly two years; also that when pupæ are taken from a nest and matured in a strange colony they were still recognized when they were returned to their own people. He also divided an ants' nest before the eggs were laid, and let each half develop its own young. Then he brought the two halves together again and young and old alike recognized

each other as kindred. Lubbock also showed that ants were able to distinguish their own intoxicated friends from strangers likewise intoxicated. In this experiment the ants seemed greatly disturbed by the disgraceful condition of their fellows, but they carried them into the nests for further care, while they summarily dumped the drunken strangers into the moat.

Ants, bees, and wasps are exceedingly cleanly in their municipal arrangements. This cleanliness is necessary surely in such teeming cities. All dirt is removed from the nest and the dead are carefully disposed of. The bees throw their deceased outside the hive, but the ants show a leaning toward cemeteries some distance from the nests. The sight of the dead above ground seems to disturb an ant's sense of the fitness of things. Mrs. Treat has observed that the red slave-making species never deposit the slaves with their own dead but have separate cemeteries for them.

Personal habits of social insects are also very cleanly; they brush and lick themselves with great assiduity. The bees have a special antennæ comb developed on the front leg, a circular aperture set with spines, through which the antennæ may be drawn. The ants have developed a regular comb in the form of a spur on the tibia of the front leg. This spur is set with strong spines, and is used by the ant exactly as we would use a comb and brush. Ants often lend a helping mandible or tongue to their fellows when performing toilet duties, amicably licking each other clean.

Ants carry each other about under some circumstances. The one carried curls up like a kitten, making a convenient bundle. When a colony decides to move its city, some of the ants select the new site and commence carrying there not only the young and treasure but also their sister ants who are not alive to the necessity of removal. Sometimes the one seized upon in this summary fashion objects, but this in nowise daunts the energetic mover, who hales her sister to the new home whether she will or no.

The older writers tell us of play spells among ants. During these times the inhabitants of an ant-hill indulge in wrestling games and gymnastics.

There are certain small insects which ants allow to dwell within their nests. So far as we can see, these guests are of no advantage to the ants, and it has been suggested that they are kept as pets. This is the only plausible theory to account for their presence in precincts where no intruders are tolerated.

Considering all the things we have discussed, and many other observed facts for which there is no room in this article, it must be conceded that insects are perfect socialists. We find that while the individual is kind and self-sacrificing for his own commonwealth, yet selfishness and cruelty and all the baser passions are aroused in the rivalry between communities. We find that the love of their kind is developed at the expense of all individual loves and hatreds. It is necessary that individual interests be subordinated in a perfect socialism; the communal instincts must alone vivify the individual. It may be claimed that these socialists are only insects, but the fact remains that they are the most intelligent creatures in this world that have made socialism a success.

It seems then, from our study, that the most serious question that confronts our socialists of to-day is how to make man, in whom the individual instinct has grown strong through eons of development, conform to a plan in which the greatest success is attained only by the total effacement of individuality. It will surely require a large plan to include the greatest development of the individual and the utter leveling of social inequality—two tendencies that have ever pointed in diametrically opposite directions.

THE GERMAN ARMY AND NAVY.

BY HENRY W. RAYMOND.

GLADSTONE called the German army "the most tremendous weapon the skill of man ever forged." In the magnitude of its machinery and the greatness of its power this is undoubtedly true. Germany holds the same rank on land, from a military point of view, that Great Britain does on the sea. She is the first military nation, as England is the first naval. Nor is her preeminence due to numbers, but rather to her magnificent organization and the manner in which her men and officers are trained to be soldiers. To be a German soldier is in itself a badge of distinction, since no person morally unfit, or who has been guilty of crime, can enter the ranks. Hence the ambition on the part of every boy to become a soldier, since not to be one is indicative of some defect, either physical or mental. Practically every man is a member of some branch of the military force of the empire.

The uniform organization of the German military forces after the War of 1870-71 was embodied in the imperial constitution of April 16, 1871. By this instrument every German is liable to service and no substitution is allowed. All the land forces of the empire are united in war and peace, under the orders of the emperor, who has the power to declare war and conclude peace, subject to the consent of the Federal Council, except in case of invasion. The emperor, or "war lord," as he delights to call himself, controls all the military forces except the troops of Bavaria, which by the treaty of federation is a separate military district, with the right reserved to its king to superintend the general administration of the two Bavarian army corps. All appointments in the service, however, are subject to the emperor's approval. By the constitution all German troops are bound to obey unconditionally the orders of the emperor and to take the oath of allegiance accordingly.

The states composing the German Empire must spend the same amount *per capita* as is apportioned for the remainder of the federal army. The reigning princes of the federation appoint the officers and are the chiefs of the military contingents belonging to their own territories. Saxony and Würtemberg has each an army corps for herself. All expenses for army purposes are included in the budget for the maintenance of the empire, and any savings on the army appropriation do not revert to the different states, but invariably to the imperial treasury. The military law of the empire for 1893 fixes the peace contingent until March, 1899, at 479,229 men, exclusive of officers. The actual effective strength in 1896 of all branches was 22,618 officers, 562,116 men, and 97,280 horses.

The education of the officers is most thorough. Everything is done to enhance his importance. He is always in uniform. "The one unmistakable sign of what Germany considers a gentleman is a man in a military uniform," says one. Promotion is made not alone by seniority but also by merit. The emperor orders promotion as the result of examination, or on the reports of superior officers. Moreover, an officer has to be elected into a regiment as into a club, thus practically preventing promotion from the ranks and creating an exclusiveness and aristocracy that gives the corps a privileged position in the community.

The candidates for commissions are termed *Avantageurs*, and are either named by the colonel or have completed two years at a cadet school. There are in all ten "war schools," eight in Prussia, one in Bavaria, and one in Würtemberg. Here the course of study is from nine to ten months. After examination the graduate becomes an ensign. There are six cadet schools and a finishing school in Berlin. The cadet serves one year and nine months with his regiment and

then goes to the artillery school at Berlin and there works nine months and a half for the artillery and twenty and a half for the engineers. Higher still than the war school is the *Kriegs Academie*, or war college, with advanced courses for special appointments on the staff. An officer may try for this course after serving three years. There are also other special schools for surgeons, cavalry, military gymnasium, musketry, etc., at Spandau, for gunnery at Berlin, and a special school for non-commissioned officers at Berlin.

As the emperor considers himself the father of his people he does not allow his officers to marry without his consent. The intended wife must have an income; in the case of subalterns it must be at least $625 a year, but for second-class captains the requirement falls to $375. A married officer must subscribe to the widows' fund so as to secure to the widows of officers from $175 to $350 a year.

"The perfection of the German military system lies less in the military organization than in the exactness with which men of every grade in every branch of the service are trained for the efficient performance of their duties," has been said. The chief school is practical service, but a general educational training is required of every one. There are schools for the soldier in each battalion, where he is taught reading, writing, spelling, and arithmetic. There are also preparatory schools for the sons of non-commissioned officers and of privates, at Erfurt, Spandau, Stralsund, and elsewhere. Boys are admitted to these schools between ten and twelve and discharged at fourteen. There are also four schools for training non-commissioned officers of infantry open to boys who have passed the preparatory schools, and to volunteers between sixteen and twenty years of age.

Recruiting is carried on by two commissions, the *Ersatz* and the *Ober Ersatz* commissions. There is one *Ersatz* for each of the 275 *Landwehr* districts and it is composed of both military and civil officers. It meets in March, usually, and every man of the district liable to military duty must appear before it. After due examination of the candidates the commission prepares a list of those who are qualified, and such cases as it cannot dispose of are referred to the *Ober Ersatz*. There is one of the latter for each brigade district, and it is composed of the brigade commander, an administrative officer of high rank, and a civil officer. It meets in each *Landwehr* district in the summer, and every man not put back by the *Ersatz* must appear before it. After another examination and revision of cases a final list is made out by this commission, which then proceeds to drafting, causing each man on the list to draw lots. Those who draw the lowest figures are assigned to the annual contingent, to be turned over by the commission to the *Landwehr* commanders for distribution among the various arms of the service.

Those exempt from drawing lots are the volunteers for one, two, or three years, foresters' apprentices, and those physically disqualified or morally unworthy. A postponement of entry into the service for a year or two may be granted to the sole support of indigent families or of parents or grandparents unable to work, and to certain other classes, such as the proprietors of large factories and persons intending to pursue a professional career or learn a trade. A person whose entry is postponed passes into the *Ersatz* reserve and is liable in case of war to be summoned to fill vacancies in the active army. The *Landwehr* comprises men who have finished their term of service with the colors and in the reserve, while the *Landsturm* embraces all able-bodied men capable of bearing arms, not already enrolled.

Two or three special features of the German military system are worthy of note. In the first place all young men between seventeen and twenty-five must obtain a special permission to emigrate. Also all members of the *Landwehr* must report their movements and change of residence, and in foreign countries or elsewhere it is their duty to return home and report when mobilization is ordered. Another regulation provides that all persons in active service are

prohibited from voting and participating in "political agitation."

The pay of a sergeant-major, the highest non-commissioned officer, is $15 per month, that of a sergeant $9, a musician $4, a private $2.50. All soldiers, as a rule, live in barracks and are allowed four cents a day for mess expenses and one and two fifths pounds of bread. As an inducement to good conduct an honorable discharge insures a place in some branch of the government service, the railway system having perhaps 300,000 old soldiers as its employees. The men are furnished five suits of clothing apiece, two for daily use and three for gala occasions. When marching in a campaign the soldier has on his best suit, a tin tag on his neck for identification, a roll of antiseptic bandage, and he formerly had, besides, a hymn-book sewed in the skirt of his tunic. The marching load was sixty-four pounds and four ounces.

Poultney Bigelow gives the active war strength of the German army as follows: 48,122 officers, 7,602 medical officers, 12,957 miscellaneous officers, 2,165,950 men, 439,759 horses, and 3,558 field-guns. These figures do not include the 700,000 in the *Landsturm* and 300,000 in the railway system.

This is an outline sketch of the organization of the German army—the model for all military systems and the most perfect of that of any existing nation. Education is the basis on which it rests and depends for its efficiency. The soldier is something more than an automaton, he is an intelligent, patriotic fighter.

The German navy is a development practically of the past twenty years. The ambition of the emperor to make Germany a great naval power is well known, but is not apparently shared by his people, or at least not by their representatives. Nevertheless the German navy is a formidable force, giving her fifth rank among naval powers.

The development of Germany as a naval power is due to Prussia. In 1848 the German people urged the construction of a fleet. Some money was collected for the purpose and a few ships fitted out, but these were subsequently sold, the German Federal Council, or Bundesrath, not being in sympathy with the national desire. Some years later Prussia began laying the foundations of a navy, and to meet the difficulty arising from a lack of good harbors in the Baltic a small tract of territory was bought from Oldenburg in 1854 and there she established a war port. Its construction was completed and opened for ships in 1869, and it was called Wilhelmshaven. In 1864, Prussia obtained by the annexation of Holstein the fine seaport of Kiel, which has since then been strongly fortified. The opening of the Kaiser Wilhelm Canal, connecting the two ports of Wilhelmshaven and Kiel, in June, 1895, enables the German naval forces to be safely and instantly concentrated in either the Baltic or the North Sea.

Since the formation of the North German Confederation the navy has belonged to the common federal interest, and since October 1, 1867, all its ships carry the same flag—black, white, and red, with the Prussian eagle and the iron cross.

Officers enter the navy as cadets early in April each year, and go on board the school ships *Stein* and *Charlotte*, where they remain for a year and are then put on shore at the marine school at Kiel for two years. They get service for a while on the ironclads and are then sent to the marine academy at Kiel for advanced instruction.

The Germans have an apprentice system. Three hundred enter each year early in April and after six weeks in preliminary scrubbing and setting up in barracks at Friedericksfort, near Kiel, about May 10 each year they are drafted into a school ship, which lies at anchor for six weeks or so, while they are given instruction in running rigging, parts of the ship, scrubbing clothes, cleaning ship, etc. Then come short cruises in the Baltic for practical seamanship and boat work. At the beginning of August the ship starts on an eight months' foreign cruise. This year she goes to Lisbon, Madeira, Cape de Verde, the Canaries, and the Azores. When she returns to Kiel at the end of March the inspection takes

place and the boys get several weeks' leave. During this cruise they get gun drill (but no target practice), instruction in geography, history, arithmetic, writing, and grammar, as well as in seamanship and ship's duties.

When they start again in May the ship makes short cruises in the Baltic and they get subcaliber target practice (thirty to seventy-five shots each). Early in August they start on a second foreign cruise of eight months. This year the ship with the one-year boys on board goes to Madeira, Rio, Bahia, Havana, Jamaica, and the Azores and returns to Kiel for final inspection in March. During this cruise they are taught theoretical artillery, marlinspike, and practical seamanship, anchor gear, steering, heaving the lead, boat handling, and signaling, and also practical target practice with great guns. In March, after the inspection, the boys are drafted on shore to barracks until September and are drilled as infantry, have small-arm target practice, etc., and at the end of September are transferred to the sea battalion, from which they are drafted into ships for general service or special instruction. These apprentices are intended as petty officers and must serve at least six years and possibly nine, depending on how much special instruction they take. They may purchase their discharge after three years, but the cost is heavy.

The real reliance for men is in drafting. When the annual drag-net is cast in July each year for all young men to do military service those for the navy are caught. The draft is made in July, but service begins at certain dates on and after October 1 each year. This year's draft for the navy is 4,767, of which 2,484 are landsmen with no knowledge of the sea and 2,283 are seamen or semi-seamen (men of nautical pursuits). To the Baltic station are assigned 988 landsmen and 951 seamen. The rest go to the North Sea station.

The landsmen are divided up into detachments according to their fitness or profession, or by haphazard or choice, and are assigned to the dock-yard division, to the *Matrosen* (sailor) division, sea-coast artillery, torpedo-boat service or sea battalion, or to the clothing factory. Those landsmen who go to the sea battalion for draft on board ship are usually men for the engineer force. As service is for three years, when a man has done his time in any service he goes into the reserve and in time of war comes back to that particular service. The seamen are drafted at once into the dock-yard division, the sea battalion, or the torpedo-boat service. The sea-coast artillery is officered and commanded by officers detailed from time to time from the navy. The total for the navy, officers and men, is 22,663.

The sailors and marines are levied by conscription from the seafaring population, which is therefore exempt from service in the army. The total number of this class exceeds 100,000, and great inducements are held out to seamen to enter the naval service. The actual strength of the German navy, taking ships that are effective for modern war, built or building in January, 1897, was 226.

Germany had the first successful submarine boat in the *Nordenfeldt*, and is the first nation to experiment with balloons to be used on shipboard for reconnoitering. Some balloons have risen 5,500 feet from the deck of a torpedo-boat steaming eighteen knots, the observer communicating with the boat by telegraph or telephone.

In military and naval matters the Germans are progressive and ready to adopt the successful results of the experiments of others. Lacking in the dash and readiness of resource characteristic of the English or American sailor, they have a dogged perseverance and a steadfast courage that makes them formidable foes. There is decided promise that before many years they will place their nation third instead of fifth among the naval powers of the world.

SUNDAY READINGS.

SELECTED BY BISHOP VINCENT.

THE MAN WITH ONE TALENT.

Then he which hath received the one talent came.
—*Matt. xxv. 24.*

[*March 6.*]

WE must all have reproached ourselves sometimes for the difficulty which we found in liking the best people best. We wondered why it was. A man who was estimable in every way, prudent, just, honest, doing all his duties faithfully and well, did not interest us. If he prospered we were not specially glad. If he met with disaster we could not say that we were sorry. While some mere vagabond of fortune, who, doing nothing to deserve prosperity, was always in ill-luck, has drawn out our kindest feeling. I think that there is something of this kind in our feeling about the people in this parable of our Lord's. The man with the five talents and the man with the two talents come up with their orderly reports. They have been faithful and industrious. We know that they have deserved the "well-done" that greets them, and we look on with calm approval as they pass off to enter into the joy of their Lord. And then the poor fellow who had received the one talent comes. He brings his napkin, a poor show of carefulness that covers up his carelessness, and holds it out with his talent in it. We hear his slipshod and cowardly attempt at an excuse. He stands forlorn and helpless as the rebuke falls on him, and a sort of pity that is close to love springs up in our hearts, and makes us mourn for him as he is dragged off to the outer darkness.

And a large part of what inclines us to like him and such as him is the show of modesty which appears in what they have to say about themselves. We shall see by and by what their modesty is really worth; but their first defense of their inefficiency sounds modest. "I had but one talent," the poor man exclaims; "what could I do? What place for me among the workers and exchangers? How could I dare to front the world and its responsibilities and dangers? I could have done so little even if I had succeeded. What does it matter whether such a little brain and such weak hands as mine worked or were idle? And so I took the safest and the easiest way. Lo, here is thy talent done up in a napkin." How modest, even if weak, it sounds beside the manly confidence which seems touched with pride as it reports: "Lord, thou deliveredst unto me five talents; behold I have gained beside them five talents more."

Let us speak about the one-talented men —the men who are crushed and enfeebled by a sense of their own insignificance. By and by they become cowardly and hide themselves behind their own good-for-nothingness, away from care, away from effort; but at first it is a mere weakening of the joints and stifling of the courage by a feeling of how little there is to them, and so that whether they do ill or well it is not of much consequence; that any attainment really worth attaining is totally out of their reach. What multitudes of such men we see? A young man starts with aspirations after culture. He will make something out of this brain of his. Very soon he comes in contact with the great, the wise, the witty of his own time and of the past, and then he discovers how little brain he really has to cultivate, and he gives up in despair. Let him be a drudge and make his money, or manage his house, or drive his horses. That is all that he is good for. A young man begins to be a Christian. Great wide visions of free and exalted thought open before him. He will not be a mere traditional believer. He will seek devoutly to understand his faith, and to send his spiritual reason as near as he may to the heart of the great problems of God's providence and man's life. How soon he finds

his thought baffled and gives up, and saying to himself, "Poor fool, what right have such as you to think about the high things of religion?" he subsides into another of the unthinking routine believers who fill our churches. A man is deeply conscious of the misery that is in the world. He tries to help it, but when he sees how little he can do, how big the bulk of wretchedness is against which his poor effort at relief is flung, it seems to him so utterly not worth his while that he lets it all go, and sinks back into the prudent merchant or the self-indulgent philosopher, looking on at woes that he no longer tries to help.

This is the history of so much of the inefficiency of so many of the inefficient men that we see about us. These men have looked at life and given up in despair. Once, long ago, when they were in college, when they first went into business, they took their talent out and gazed at it and wondered how they should invest it; but it looked so little that they lost all heart, and wrapped it in the napkin where it has been ever since, and that is the whole story of their useless lives. And yet one thing seems clear, that only by the waking up of men like these, only by new courage put into their hopelessness, can the world really make trustworthy growth. It seems very certain that the world is to grow better and richer in the future, however it has been in the past, not by the magnificent achievements of the highly gifted few, but by the patient faithfulness of the one-talented many.

[*March 13.*]

But we may go deeper than this into the causes and the cure of that self-disgust which makes a man think it not worth while to try to do anything in the world. The real root of it is in the very presence of self-consciousness at all. Any man who is good for anything, if he is always thinking about himself will come to think himself good for nothing very soon. It is only a fop or a fool who can bear to look at himself all day long without disgust. And so the first thing for a man to do, who wants to use his best powers at their best, is to get rid of self-consciousness, to stop thinking about himself and how he is working altogether. Ah, that is so easy to say and so hard to do! Of course it is; but there are two powers which God put into the human breast at the beginning, whose very purpose is to help men do just this. These are the power of loving and working for an absolute duty, and the power of loving and working for our fellow men. When a man becomes aware of these great necessities, he is rescued from the consideration of himself altogether. The despotism of such a necessity sets him free, and he just goes and does what must be done with all his might. This is the history of every brave, effective man that ever lived. Moses, Luther, Cromwell, every one of them dallied with the corners of the napkin, and almost folded up the talent; but the call was too strong, and each forgot his weakness and went and worked his fragment of the world's salvation.

Does not this turn the tables entirely? If this sort of inefficiency has its root in self-consciousness, if it can be released only by forgetfulness of self, what has become of the modesty which we thought we saw in the man's face who came up with his feeble excuse for his unprofitable talent? It is only a thin-veiled pride, not modesty at all. And he who comes with all his faithful work, and offers it to the Lord by whom alone he did it—his is the true humility. I beg you to think of this and feel it. If you are hiding yourself behind your commonness and littleness, come out! That shelter is a citadel of pride. Come out, and take the work that God has given you. Do it for him and by him. Cease to parade your feebleness. Work in his light, and so escape the outer darkness.

[*March 20.*]

Of all the powers of which men easily think that they are wholly or almost destitute, and so from whose exercise they think themselves excused, the one most commonly alleged, I think, is the religious

power, the whole spiritual faculty in general. How familiar it all sounds from constant repetition. A man says: "I know that people are religious. It is no fancy; it is a reality with them. I know their souls do apprehend a supernatural. They live in the presence of spiritual forces which they never see. Eternity is as real to them as time. They love God; they serve Christ; and the Holy Spirit, the Lord and Giver of Life, is with them and in them constantly. But for me, simply, all this is impossible. I have no spiritual capacity. It is like asking me to use a sense I have not got; like asking a blind man to see, when you ask me to be religious. I can take only what the senses set before me. I can believe intensely only what I see." And so, not scoffingly, but sadly, he counts himself totally outside the possibility of all the joy and all the culture which he knows come to his brethren out of the spiritual life, the life of faith.

When I see such a man, all thought of indignation in my mind passes off entirely, and a profound pity, a complete sense of what he might be, and of what he is losing, takes possession of me. It is too serious a matter for mere indignation. I may be angry with a man who might carve statues and paint pictures, if he spent his life in making mock flowers out of wax and paper; but when a man who might have God for company shuts up and disowns those doors of his nature through which God can enter, and lives the emptied life which every man lives who lives without God, his loss is too dreadful to be angry with. You merely mourn for him, and long and try to help him if you can.

And what shall we say of this phenomenon? The first thing that we must say will be this: That religion to that man has, in all probability, been wrongly put. Some temporary, accidental, special form of spiritual life has been set up before him, either by himself or by some one to whom he has listened, as if it were eternal and essential. He has looked at that, and said, truly, that there was nothing in him that could live such a life as that. And so because men said, narrowly, that to be that was to be religious, he has said that there was no possibility of religion for him, while all the time there slept in his nature a rich capacity for some new characteristic type of spiritual force, which, once set free, should flower into luxuriant beauty and glorify the world. The man has not got hold of the heart of religion at all, only of somebody's special embodiment of it, and sunk back, heartless, because he could not copy that.

All men will not be Calvinists, or Quakers, or Methodists, or Episcopalians. But underneath and through them all there is something which every man may reach and fasten himself to, and be a Christian under some form or other. What is that something? What will the soul be that finds it? To ask that question is to go back through the dark, tortuous ravines of church history, up onto that broad, open table-land of the New Testament, from which all the ravines come down. There it becomes all plain. The man who is a Christian there, with Peter, with John, nay with Jesus, will be a man, spiritual, reverent, and penitent. That is the heart of the matter; he will be conscious of his own soul and its capacities; conscious of God, and full of humble love to him; conscious of his sin and humbly dependent upon Christ for forgiveness and for help.

Am I right in thinking that the reason why many people are not Christians is that they misrepresent Christianity to themselves, that they have not conceived its simplicity? Am I right when I believe that there is in every man the power to take it in this simplicity and make it his new life? I do believe so fully, and for various reasons. The first reason of all is one that is no reason except to him who is already a believer, but surely to him it must come very strongly. It does seem to me that no man can really seem to himself to be living a spiritual life and not hold with all his heart as a possibility, and long to see realized as a fact, the spiritual life in every soul of every son of man. If I truly thought that there was any one man who

really was, as so many men have told me that they were, incapable of spirituality, bound down inevitably to carnality and the drudgery of material life, I should lose my whole faith in the capacity of spirituality in any man. The whole would melt and flutter off into a thin, dreamy delusion. I think that that same character of God which makes it possible for him to give the spiritual life to any of his children makes it necessary that he should give the free opportunity of the same spiritual life to all his children. I am sure that there are men enough in Africa, in Asia, out in the wigwams, nay, right here by my side, to whom many of the statements of truth which are dear to me are and always will be unintelligible; many of the forms of worship which are rich to me are and always will be barren. To know that does not trouble me; but to know that there was anywhere on God's earth a human being who was, and necessarily always must be, incapable of the sense of soul, the love for God, the repentance of sin, the reliance of salvation —I could not know that and yet believe in God.

[*March 27.*]

If the spiritual life is something not strange in its essence, but familiar; if its working force consists of the simplest and most fundamental of the powers of humanity brought into contact with and filled full of a divine influence, then another thing which we see continually is not strange. And this other thing constitutes another reason for believing that in every man the capacity of the spiritual life abides, hidden if it is not seen, sleeping if it is not awake. There are certain experiences in every life which have their power just in this, that they break through the elaborate surface and get down to the simplest thoughts and emotions of the human heart. Great sickness, sudden bereavement, great joy, intense love or enthusiasm, fatherhood, the near sight of death—all of these supreme experiences of life are characterized by the breadth, the largeness of the simple thoughts and feelings they awaken. In them you have the crust broken to fragments, and the great heart of the life laid open. And if that heart, laid open, is inevitably, universally spiritual; if, as we always see in these supreme moments of the life, a soul most vividly asserts itself, and the man insists upon another world and on a God, and takes the story of the Christhood into his heart with hungry eagerness, what does it prove but this, that when the simplest base of any man's life is reached, when the ground above it is torn off by an earthquake or melted bare by the sunshine of happiness, there is the capacity for spirituality, the soil in which the spiritual seed must grow.

When I see what we all see so often, the man in great trouble or great joy grown suddenly religious, the glad "Thank God!" or the agonized "God help me!" bursting out of unaccustomed lips, I think it does not mean desperation, and it does not mean hypocrisy. It means that for once in that man's life the true soil of his nature has been laid bare, and it has claimed the divine relations for which it was made. The man's hard surface may close over when the great agony or the great joy is past, and all may seem just as before; but he who once has known the movements of this new capacity never can think of himself as he was used to think. He must remember. He may go on living a most earthly life, but he knows forever that there is a spiritual heaven and a spiritual hell. He never can say of himself again, "I have no spiritual capacity." He has discovered what he often has denied. New regions of joy and sorrow, both infinite, have opened to his sight around, beyond the poor vexations and amazements of his daily life. He has looked upon God, and his soul never can forget how it answered when it met the gaze of the love and power which made it, and for which it was made.

In face of all that I behold in man, in face especially of all that I behold in the Man who shows humanity to itself, I do not know how to believe that there is any man living who is incapable of spiritual life;

any man who may not know and value his own soul; know and love God; know and dread and repent of sin. I may understand that this or that expression of spirituality in dogma, this or that incorporation of spirituality in formal ceremonies, is unintelligible, unattainable by you; but that does not justify you in giving up the thought of spirituality altogether and living a carnal life. Somewhere, for your soul, there is an entrance into that love of God for which all our souls were made, and for which the Son of God claimed them all. It may be—nay, in the deepest sense, it must be—that your way is new—a different spiritual career leading into a different spiritual attainment from any that any man ever followed or attained before. Do not stunt your own growth, do not hamper the free grace of God by making up your mind beforehand what kind of a Christian you must be. There is a faith which, out of all the world, and, above all, out of Christ, gathers a perfect conviction that the soul is divine and can come to its God; then faithfully takes the next step toward him by the faithful doing of the next known duty, the faithful acceptance of the next opened truth; and so choosing no way for itself, but only sure that it is God's, and that God is leading it, ever advances in his growing light and comes at last to him. Such faith may Christ increase in us.

Let us do what we ought and what we can for our own souls at once. For the judgment is coming not only at the last day, but all the time. Every day the power that we will not use is failing from us. Every day the God whose voice speaks through all the inevitable necessities of our moral life is saying of the men who keep their talents wrapped in napkins, "Take the talent from him"; and since he will not enter into the perfect light he must be "cast into the outer darkness."—*Phillips Brooks.*

THE NEWSPAPER POST-OFFICE AT BERLIN.

BY A. OSCAR KLAUSSMANN.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE GERMAN "UEBER LAND UND MEER."

WHOEVER in Berlin passes Königgrätzer Street near Dessauer Street about five o'clock in the afternoon notices a striking concourse of large closed wagons, displaying on their sides the names and devices of the largest political newspapers in Berlin, chasing along at a sharp trot, and turning into Dessauer Street. One sees there too the little yellow mail wagons drawn by one horse, the so-called carryalls, coming out of Dessauer Street at a rapid pace. If you turn into the latter street you soon see a pleasant, gaily ornamented building which stands back a little from the line of the street. In its front yard there is an extremely lively rattling of wagons over the cobblestones. You are standing before the Imperial Newspaper Post-office, and at this hour of the afternoon the Berlin newspapers are beginning to deliver their evening issues, to be sent away into the suburbs, into the country, or even into foreign lands.

If you make your way through the newspaper employees, coachmen, and carriers of enormous piles of papers, and arrive through the main entrance into the great vestibule, you see here a gigantic table with a surface of over twenty square yards strapped with iron, upon which, in uninterrupted succession, thousands and thousands of copies of Berlin newspapers are thrown down with a crash by the employees of the papers. You look into the long halls swarming with mail officials and see the table which was just covered with newspapers piled up over a yard high cleared away in the fraction of a minute, to be immediately after filled again. To the German newspaper, to the publishers, editors, and authors, as well as to the reading public at home and abroad, this building and the activity which is constantly

going on here are of most extraordinary significance.

The Imperial Newspaper Post-office has the task of sending forth the political newspapers that appear in Berlin (there are twenty-four of them, of which a great number appear twice a day), as well as the non-political, the technical journals (ninety-six of them), to all the post-offices of the realm where the subscribers of these newspapers reside. The newspaper post-office has besides this the delivery of the Prussian law bulletin and of the imperial law bulletin. It further has the care of newspapers from abroad for the whole of Germany and sends away German periodicals to all the countries with post-offices that belong to the world's postal union, and supplies directly with journals the German colonies in New Guinea and in East and West Africa.

Twice a day there is in the newspaper post-office a great excitement, that is, from half past two till eight o'clock in the morning and from half past four till ten o'clock in the evening. This is the time when the Berlin political journals deliver their editions in hundreds of thousands of copies. The technical journals come into the newspaper post-office in the course of the day, and if special circumstances do not prevent they are sorted for the different stations with all calmness and ease. But the Berlin political newspapers come in the morning and in the evening, or at the so-called last minute, just before the carryall mail wagons rush from the newspaper post-office to the railway station, in order that the parcels packed in the bags for the different stations may be thrown into the mail cars of the trains departing from Berlin. In the morning and evening rush in this office it is always a question of counting out, dividing up, sorting for the different stations, packing up, and tying up, inside of a few minutes, hundreds of thousands of copies and of packing in bags those parcels of papers belonging to one mail route, of loading these bags into carryalls, and of sending them from the yard.

Thus twice a day the officials of the newspaper post-office are brought to a task which to the outsider appears impossible. And yet they have accomplished it for many years, thanks to their routine and to their energy, as well as to the correct cooperation of all their forces. One hundred and twenty-one postal clerks under the leadership of officials and the oversight of the director are working at seven o'clock in the afternoon like clockwork. Not a single one of these officials may disobey, may make a mistake, may be idle even a half minute; he must do his work like a machine. He must not be disturbed by the monstrous rush and roar on the ground floor and the first story, which constantly prevail. It must be a matter of indifference to him that hundreds of men in the vestibule are running back and forth, that hydraulic and electric elevators loaded with newspapers are rattling up and down, that carts are rolling through the halls, electric bells ringing, orders sounding through speaking tubes, and that running in all directions never ceases, so that it appears at first to the uninitiated like chaos.

Even for him who has repeatedly looked at the activity of the officials in the newspaper post-office it is difficult to understand what is really going on here. So by way of general description it may be said that for the mastery of the work the officials are divided into sixteen so-called "lists," that is subdivisions. To every subdivision or "list" a number of the four thousand post-offices are assigned with which the newspaper post-office has relations, and for every post-office a box is provided in the division to which it belongs. In this box before the beginning of the great rush a band is laid which is to serve later for packing the newspapers. On this band is pasted a printed card with the name of the receiving post-office. The newspaper post-office uses daily many thousands of such tickets, which are prepared by the help of cutting machines. From eight o'clock in the morning the technical journals arriving for the post-offices in question are laid into the boxes belonging to the particular post-offices, and when about half past four in the afternoon the first copies of the political journals arrive from the presses of course those post-

offices must be considered first which lie along those postal routes for which the express trains depart first. Therefore all the newspapers delivered in the vestibule are divided up from the sorting place nearest to them and given to the clerks of the division they belong to as fast as the copies of the newspapers arrive.

"Five hundred *Berlin Daily News*," cries, for example, the newspaper employee who drags into the vestibule a pile of papers tied together with cord and throws them upon the iron table, while some of the officials seize the bundle, tear off the cords, and run their fingers over the pile with such swiftness you can hardly follow them, in order to recount the copies. The stentorian voice of the manager of this room shouts the command, "Division one, one hundred and fifty, division three, two hundred," etc.

At the same moment the newspapers are also divided up to the clerks, and these run to their divisions and lay down their piles again on the big tables. From mighty books in which the names of the stations and the number of copies that are received are written out the officials in the divisions call out the name and the number of copies, and other officials with extraordinary swiftness sort the copies into the separate boxes. This must all be done in restless haste, for already the electric bells are shrilly sounding which indicate the closing of the mails because the carryalls must leave for the railway stations. Now out of the boxes of those stations which belong to the route in question, for which the mail is closed, all the copies with the band lying beneath them are drawn out, the band is tied about the papers, cords are drawn about every package with astonishing skill and swiftness, then officials with the piles of newspaper packages hasten to the proper place for the delivery of the parcels, which are here to be packed into the bags intended for the given route. The bags are closed and brought by other officials to the loading place where the carryalls are standing with open doors. The officials in charge have their eyes everywhere, bag after bag flies into the wagon, the doors are closed, the command is given, "Go!" and three or four carryalls rush at full speed out of the inner yard, through a long passage into the front yard, and from there to the street, to pursue their way to the different railway stations.

So the work goes on with feverish haste on the ground floor and in the first story. As already mentioned, the copies which are intended for the divisions of the upper story go up in the elevator and the packed bags which are to be loaded up down-stairs come sliding down from the upper story in a tin-covered chute.

This is the life and work of the newspaper post-office as it displays itself externally to the visitor. The office work of this postal institution, the only one in the world, is, however, just as gigantic as the work in the mailing rooms, only it is performed without noise, of course; but it offers extraordinary difficulties because about the first of each quarter, by the arrival of thousands and thousands of orders for newspapers from home and abroad, the work is concentrated into a few days. The men must work then day and night without interruption, not only in the mailing rooms, where in the course of a year the work never rests, but also up-stairs in the office rooms. The newspaper post-office has in its offices every year one and three quarter millions of entries to dispose of, and in addition to these takes care of the accounts with the post-offices and the publishers of the newspapers. The newspaper post-office pays two millions of dollars to the Berlin publishers alone, for whom it receives the money from the four thousand post-offices of the realm, where it is collected, and with which of course it must keep the accounts. An enormous task for the newspaper post-office is caused every quarter by the preparation of the newspaper price-list, which appears four times a year in an edition of seven thousand five hundred copies and gives the facts about eleven thousand newspapers, in regard to their names, prices, places of origin, publication, etc. Nowhere is there so much living and dying as in the domain of the newspaper. Within a quarter of a year hundreds of sheets collapse

and hundreds of new ones arise. All the changes must of course be entered again and again in the newspaper list and a great many changes that have taken place must be communicated to the post-offices; and so this price-list alone demands uninterrupted labor the whole year through. This labor is still further increased by the fact that the price-list office must be in continual correspondence with the publishers of existing newspapers, of newly founded ones, as well as of extinct ones.

The manager of this curious and practical office has been since 1892 Postal Director Weberstedt, who has earned the reputation in the five years of his activity of having increased the capacity of the office entrusted to him and of having always succeeded in accomplishing the newly arising tasks, although these often appear beyond the range of human possibility. To all foreigners and postal officials who come to Germany for purposes of observation the newspaper post-office is one of the most interesting objects of study and a spectacle which no one likes to miss. If the reader has the pleasure of always receiving punctually, in the morning or evening, his newspaper from Berlin, whether political or technical, he owes it to the restless zeal with which the newspaper post-office works day and night, year in and year out, week-days and Sundays.

THE TRAMP AND THE LABOR COLONY IN GERMANY.

BY A. F. WEBER.

THE tramp, that obnoxious individual who is nowadays causing so much trouble to rural overseers of the poor and city charity organization societies, is by no means a creature of our century. Older than American liberty, older even than Magna Charta, the foundation of English liberty, is that ubiquitous mortal known to English law as the "sturdy vagabond," the "valiant beggar," the able-bodied tramp. The tramp himself may not be to blame for his dislike to a settled life; in him may still dwell the nomad spirit that made our Teutonic forefathers wanderers. For if we go back to the beginning of the Christian era we shall find that all the nations of Europe, except the Greeks and the Romans, were as little inclined to dwelling in settled abodes as is the tramp of to-day. They were all tramps then, and it took years and even centuries to instil into their descendants that contentment with fixity of abode which we now regard as one of the fundamental traits of human character.

That multitudes never accepted the conditions of a settled agricultural life is proved not only by the frequent mention of vagabondage in the English records clear back to the Saxon Conquest, but also by the traditions of such bandit-heroes as Robin Hood and Little John and by nursery rhymes such as "Beggars are coming to town."

The earliest poor laws in England were those enacted for the repression of vagabondage. The insecurity of life and property consequent upon the presence of swarms of beggars and of armed bands is the constant theme of the statutes from the beginning of Parliament in the thirteenth century. In the reign of Richard II. severe penalties were provided for the "sturdy beggars." The first offense was punishable by a public whipping of the naked body; the second, by the boring or cutting off of the ears; the third, by hanging. The actual enforcement of such penalties, however, was impossible in a society permeated with the Christian teaching of almsgiving. During most of the fifteenth century, a period of economic prosperity, the laws were much milder, but in the last quarter of the century the old troubles reappeared. The preamble of the Act of 1572, in the reign of Elizabeth, recites that "all parts of this realm of England and Wales be presently with rogues, vagabonds, and sturdy beggars exceedingly pestered, by means whereof

daily happeneth in the same realm horrible murders, thefts, and other great outrages." The remedy now proposed against vagabondage was to fine any person who "harbored, gave money, lodging, or other relief to any such rogue, vagabond, or sturdy beggar," and for the purpose of identification the tramps were to be branded on the shoulder.

During the three centuries that have elapsed since this act, England has continued her efforts to abolish the tramp, but that institution stubbornly persists in his refusal to be "eliminated." It was estimated years ago that 30,000 persons were continually on the tramp in England; and General Booth more recently estimated the number at 165,000. In the United States every great city seems to have an "especially" large number of tramps to deal with, according to the reports of the charity societies.

The methods of treatment are various in different times and places. Now and again the tramps are treated as vagrants and sent to jail. But such punishment is just what they like, for it gives them warm, comfortable quarters, with plenty of food. They tramp in summer, and in winter are fed and sheltered at public expense. Elsewhere they may be treated leniently by the public and live well by house-to-house begging. Indiscriminate giving may possibly be helpful in individual cases, but the ultimate result is the increase of the very evil people are trying to remove. That "you can have all the beggars you are willing to pay for" is as true now as in medieval times, when the liberal but mistaken policy of the abbeys maintained swarms of beggars about their doors. The lack of any scientific and systematic method of dealing with tramps is shown in the wide-spread practice of "railroading" or "sending them on." A fund is given to the police or charities department to be used for "transportation." Of course this would be an eminently satisfactory method if practiced by a single town; but as other towns follow the same practice, the only result is to give the tramps free rides. When the local poor authorities of a county or state come together in a conference and compare notes, they soon find that the expense of "railroading" tramps out of one town into the next is a waste of money.

In some parts of the country the rational treatment of the evil has been entered upon, the essentials of which are a work test, provision of lodging and meals, and investigation of the individual's needs and capabilities. Professor Warner in his work on "American Charities," Chapter VII., has described these encouraging attempts and pointed out the direction in which they may probably be extended with success.

The Germans have made some experiments in solving the difficult problem of the unemployed which deserve our attention. First of all are the municipal labor exchanges or employment bureaus, managed by officials of the city governments. Although the recent development of this movement is very interesting it will not be described in this paper for the reason that several American cities are experimenting in the same direction. Insurance of the unemployed by municipal authorities has also been tried, but the leaders in this movement are the Swiss towns. The subject is too large to be treated in anything but a separate essay.*

A more original departure is the erection of workmen's shelters along the main routes to the great manufacturing centers. The purpose of these shelters is to assist workmen migrating from one part of the country to another in search of work. Lodging and meals are provided for the travelers, who in return must do a half-day's work in the workshops attached to the shelter. As this work does not suffice to cover the expenses, all workmen who possess more than seventy-five cents are charged a small sum for their board and lodging.

These shelters, which are intended to be found on all the main routes of travel at intervals of about half a day's journey, are usually erected and maintained by the

* See W. F. Willoughby's paper, "Insurance Against Unemployment," in the *Political Science Quarterly* for September, 1897.

public authorities of groups of towns. But so far as possible the government utilizes the lodging-houses of the Evangelical or Roman Catholic Church, of which there are some four hundred in Germany; in no case, however, is a workman excluded on account of his creed. Migrants who are ill are sent to the hospital, those who are intoxicated are turned away; but all other workmen are freely admitted. The only requirements to which inmates are subject are abstinence from alcoholic liquors and respect for the property of the house, all the inmates being collectively responsible for any damage done, unless the offender is discovered. If workmen refuse to perform the work required they are blacklisted and no longer received at any shelter. On Sundays both work and traveling are suspended. A short religious service is also held each evening, but attendance is optional.

There are now many thousand of these shelters in Germany. We have statistics of 1,957 for the year 1890, when they gave 1,900,000 lodgings and about the same number of suppers and breakfasts. The average number of workmen received each day was 5,300, which was 2.7 to each shelter. At a census taken on the night of December 15, 1890, the shelters had a population of 9,216. The average expense per day for each individual was only sixteen cents, but, small as the sum is, very little of it is derived from the work performed; thus of the total expenses, $330,000, only $17,000 proceeded from the work done in the shelter workshops. The shelters are therefore maintained almost entirely by the taxpayers, and in such cases there always exists the liability of abuse.

A system which secures board and lodging to the traveler in return for only half a day's work may only encourage the professional tramp. To avoid this danger, workmen are provided with passports and at every shelter the hour of departure is noted thereon, as well as directions to the next shelter by the nearest route. In this way the authorities exercise some control over the traveler's movements and see to it that he is carrying out an honest intention to find work. All excuses for the necessity of begging are done away with and any workman found begging or wandering on byways is liable to be arrested as a vagabond. The result has been that a decrease in vagabondage has gone hand in hand with the opening of new shelters.

The first shelters were established in the early eighties and from 1885 to 1890 nearly 1,000 were opened every year. In 1882 the number of convictions for vagabondage was 24,000; in 1884, 18,000; in 1887, 15,000; and in 1890, 8,600. Improved industrial conditions may account for part of the decrease, but the principal factor is undoubtedly the system of shelters for helping on workmen in search of work. The policy of the authorities has become more and more favorable to the keeping of a labor registry at each shelter and the vast majority of shelters established in recent years have labor registries attached. Workmen are advised as to the state of the labor market in various districts and as to the best route to take in order to obtain work.

The workmen's shelters and labor registries therefore form the foundation stones of Germany's experiments at solving the problem of the unemployed. Except during periods of industrial depression they ought to suffice to secure employment for the industrially efficient classes of workmen. But there exist in every country large classes of the industrially inefficient—those in whom the spirit of industry, the ability to work steadily, faithfully, and efficiently, are lacking. These men may be said to be on the margin of employment, that is, they are the last men that an employer takes on and the first he discharges with variations in the conditions of the market. They contribute largely to the class of professional tramps.

To reclaim such men as these and train them in the orderly habits of industry was the object of Pastor von Bodelschwingh when he established the first workmen's farm colony at Wilhelmsdorf, near Bielefeld, a manufacturing city in Westphalia on the line from Hanover to Cologne. The idea

was quickly taken up by religious and charitable societies elsewhere and by the end of 1892 there were twenty-five workmen's colonies in Germany, with a population of 3,189. The aim of these labor colonies is "to employ at agricultural or other labor, until such time as regular positions can be found for them, all men, of whatever religion or rank, who are able and willing to work." Involved in this is the secondary object of depriving vagabonds who will not work of their stock excuse for begging—the claim that they can find no work. To this end all the subscribers to a colony are provided with tickets with which they may send beggars to the colony instead of giving them money or food.

The majority of the colonies are farm colonies and the work done is mainly agricultural; manufacturing industry is carried on only for the purpose of supplying the personal needs of the colonists. There are, however, some city colonies, the largest of which is in Berlin. At the time of the writer's visit to the Berlin colony, in the early summer, there were only about one hundred inmates, but the colony, with its branch at Tegel, has places for 260, which are nearly filled in the winter months. The majority of the men are between the ages of twenty-five and fifty, the number under the age of twenty being insignificant. Unmarried men of course predominate, forming in 1895 three fourths of all colonists. The remaining one fourth are divided almost equally between married, widowed, and divorced.

It was hoped by the promoters of the labor colonies that they might so organize the industrial activities of the workmen as to become nearly self-sustaining, nor have the colonies entirely disappointed these hopes. The financial report of the Berlin colony for 1895 shows the total receipts to be 170,987.90 marks, or about $42,747. Of this amount $29,880, or 70 per cent, was the proceeds of the work performed by the colonists. Members of the society, who are expected to contribute at least fifty cents a year, gave $2,700 in 1895; $2,000 more was received from house-to-house collections; a concert given by singers of the royal opera-house netted $300 and gifts from the emperor and German princes amounted to over $100; finally about $8,000 was contributed by relatives or friends of men admitted to the colony.

The effort to find profitable work for men who have failed in regular business undertakings taxes the inventiveness and ingenuity of the colony superintendent to the utmost. Skilled trades are necessarily excluded and work that requires considerable mechanical power is also ruled out, chiefly from lack of funds to put in the necessary equipment. The industry that had occupied the majority of the colonists up to a short time before the writer's visit was the making of small wooden packing boxes for eggs, crackers, confectionery, etc. Large manufacturers who were numbered among the friends of the colony had given it their orders, but the introduction of American machinery in private establishments had so much reduced the price of wooden boxes that the colony could no longer meet their competition. The splitting of kindling wood had also been carried on on a large scale, but the market became glutted and prices fell so much that the colony had almost as large a shed full of stove wood as of packing boxes.

The making of straw covers for glass bottles is in some colonies an important industry. A few men are employed as copyists, the colony taking all the work it can secure in addressing circulars, recommendations, family news, etc., making extracts or copies of documents and accounts and the like. Perhaps the most important single industry after the failure of box-making was the manufacture of brooms and brushes. The street-sweepers of Berlin and other German cities use a broom made of twigs, which is never seen in this country. Such brooms are supplied largely by the labor colonies. Coarse brushes are also made in large quantities and the men at work exhibited considerable skill when the writer saw them.

The sale of the manufactured articles is largely dependent upon the patronage of

the society's members. They are also urged to send to the colony for men to do the odd jobs about the house and garden, such as beating carpets, cleaning floors, chopping wood, carrying coal, etc.

In order to carry out its purpose of making men industrious, the colony pays wages to its inmates over and above their cost of maintenance, which averaged thirty cents a day at the Berlin colony in 1895. The food alone cost between eight and ten cents a day, and was excellent in character. The colonists are not charged the full thirty cents for their board and lodging, but only twenty cents, leaving a very small surplus. But the wages in any event are not to exceed ten cents a day in summer and six cents in winter. The money is all kept by the officers of the colony in order to control the workmen's expenditure. The business office conducts an account with each colonist, buys, on his order, clothing and other necessary articles, and renders up whatever balance there is when the workman is ready to depart and go to work elsewhere.

The rules of the colony are rigid, but not quite of the prison order. Work begins at six o'clock in the morning and is continued until six p. m., with several pauses for meals. The workmen are not free to come and go as they please, but for good reasons (such as the search for work) may get occasional permission to go outside. Eatables may be brought into the colony only by permission, and liquors under no circumstances. It is a peculiarity of the labor colony that no beer is supplied, since in all other public institutions in Germany known to the writer it is occasionally, if not regularly, furnished. But the class of men with whom the colonies have to deal are particularly liable to temptation in this way. Drunken persons, to be sure, are nominally refused admission, but this does not prevent the entrance of many hard-drinking men.

The purpose of the colony being to uplift men morally and industrially, one finds something of a religious atmosphere about the rooms. Neatness, order, politeness are everywhere insisted upon. The only penalty for disobeying the rules is dismissal, which seems to be amply sufficient. Religious services are held daily and attendance of the men is obligatory. A chaplain endeavors to form close personal relations with the workmen and exert his influence in favor of morality and industry; but the teaching is not dogmatical or framed to suit any one sect or creed. Music is encouraged and the colony has a very good pipe-organ. It also possesses a library, to which constant additions are being made.

The success of the experiment is to be tested by inquiry into the number of colonists whom it fits for regular industry. The results are not altogether encouraging. Only one quarter of the discharged colonists enter upon work found for them by the society or by their own efforts. One half of the workmen depart from the colony well clothed and prepared for work, but with no engagement. It is greatly to be feared that most of them return to a life of vagabondage, though statistics on this point are as silent as those upon the careers of discharged convicts. The remaining twenty-five per cent of the discharged colonists depart on account of misconduct, incapacity, refusal to work, etc. These figures give the cause of departure of the 817 colonists who left the Berlin colony in 1895:

Colonist's own request	391
Work found by colonist	128
Work found by society	56
Return to family	8
Time expired (4), died (1)	5
Incapacity to work	48
Unwillingness to work	23
Misconduct	84
Drunkenness	23
Deserted	45
Command of officials	6
Total	817

Unfortunately the percentage of those discharged at their own request has increased, taking all the colonies together. In 1885–86 it was 54.1; in 1886–87, 57.8; in 1887–89, 60.4. On the other hand, the percentage of those for whom work was found declined in the same periods, having been 27.4 in 1885–86 and 20.8 in 1887–89.

The colonies have been criticized on the ground that the majority of the colonists were abandoned vagabonds, as shown by

the large number of readmissions. Out of 10,000 persons admitted to the colonies in 1887–89, fully three fourths had at some time been in a correctional institution. Of those admitted for the first time 72.8 per cent had been imprisoned, but of those who were admitted seven or more times virtually all had been in prison one or more times.

Now the reception of mere tramps or vagabonds into the colonies does not of itself justify criticism, for it was the original intention of reclaiming such men that led to the foundation of the colonies. But the number of readmissions goes to show that the efforts at reclamation have not been successful. Some means must be found of excluding the incorrigible ones. One way of doing this is to make residence compulsory for a certain length of time after entrance, instead of permitting men to come and go at will. Such freedom was granted at the start because it was the original thought of the promoters that the colony should be a place where a needy workman could find employment long enough to obtain a good outfit of clothes. But this freedom having been abused, some of the colonies, notably that at Berlin, have adopted a rule that every man who seeks the shelter of the colony must remain at least four weeks. This restraint or confinement naturally deters many of the more worthless tramps from seeking admission.

Another means of shutting out men who are utterly incorrigible has been adopted by some of the colonies and consists in requiring those admitted a second time to work two or three weeks without pay. But the most urgent need is an improvement in the administration of the colony so as to secure a better control over discharged colonists. The adoption of something like the parole system for discharged convicts would enable the officers of the colony to watch the course of their former workmen and help them to lead steadier lives. The feeling of absolute irresponsibility which a workman must now have on his departure from the colony undoes most of the good work of the colony. The tramp is no doubt bound to remain with us, but rational and systematic treatment by public and private authorities will greatly diminish the evil.

(End of Required Reading for March.)

MEMORANDA AS TO THE LATE CHARLES A. DANA.

BY JOHN SWINTON.

FORMERLY OF THE NEW YORK SUN'S EDITORIAL STAFF.

I HAVE found in one of the drawers of my desk a lot of the letters and notes which I received from the late Charles A. Dana of the New York *Sun* during the eight or ten years before 1884, when I was a member of the editorial staff of that journal. In so far as these relics of the deceased editor are of a private nature, or in so far as they deal with affairs that need not now be spoken of, no reference shall here be made to their contents. But in many of them there are passages of an elucidatory kind that may properly be printed at this time, such passages as mark some of those of his personal and professional characteristics that can be known to but few people.

It was in the year 1875 that Mr. Dana offered me the opportunity of service on *The Sun's* editorial staff; and my first contribution to the columns of the paper was an article satirizing lightly the chief editors of other New York papers, a provocative article, perhaps, though it was wholly free from malice. He let me know that he liked the thing, and the next day's mail brought to me an ample check in payment for it. It was at this time that the religious revival conducted by Moody and Sankey was a subject of extraordinary interest in New York, and Mr. Dana then sent to me a terse note: "Please to examine the revival." In accordance with this request the great

revival was "examined" over and over again for a long time, more especially as regarded its influence upon the character and conduct of the converts; and many disquisitions about it were printed, as to the nature of which he expressed his opinion in brief and lively notes that yet seem to me as fresh as they were when written.

I would say here that two of Mr. Dana's characteristics were brought within my knowledge soon after I had taken a place among his editorial assistants. One of them was his readiness to express his appreciation of those writings which he regarded as good; the other was his liberality in paying for them. It has always seemed to me that both of these characteristics are to be much admired in an editor, or, for that matter, in any other employer. A few words of approval go far with a writer, and a bank check of proper dimensions sometimes counts for far more than its face value. To illustrate his manner, I may say that after he had sent me a number of checks in payment for manuscripts, I wrote to him that I would like a fixed rate of remuneration per column; and he replied promptly in a note marked at once by brevity and beauty: "Fix the rate yourself." Thus, accordingly, it was fixed for a time, not, however, until after I had received from him in December, 1875, an epistle which, as I think, may well be here quoted for the instruction of all employers of literary workmen. Here it is:

MY DEAR SWINTON: Not hearing from you on the subject of rates, I continue to follow my own unaided reason. But I want you to understand that my first desire in the case is to make you happy; and, whatever you wish I will try to do, if you will only let me know what it is. . . . . .

Yours faithfully, CHARLES A. DANA.

How could any person give a better idea of one of Mr. Dana's traits than that contained in these words from his own pen?

The reply made to this communication was acceptable to its writer, and things went along under an arrangement satisfactory to both parties till the following year, when he proposed to make a change from payment by the column to a yearly salary. "What about the all-important question?" he wrote. An answer was given; the business was settled at once. The settlement suited him for three years, and at the end of that time, when he was about to leave the country for a season, he dashed off a letter, in which, after saying, "I desire you to take charge of the editorship of *The Sun* during my absence," he made generous provision for such recompense as accorded with the new responsibilities.

I speak of these minor things here only for the purpose of illustrating a trait in Mr. Dana's character about which the public cannot know much, and which he retained through all the many years of our friendship, or until his death in October last, when my relations with his journal were brought to an end. He was open-handed toward the assistants whose work he liked; he was a model editor in his dealings with his staff. "How do you suppose," he once wrote to me, "that I can both edit and appreciate things, and then guess their cash value?"

As regards the other trait of Mr. Dana already referred to, his readiness to praise any writer's production which seemed to him uncommonly meritorious, it would be easy to speak freely; but I shall merely say here that this trait is one of the very finest traits that an editor can possess—an editor of critical judgment and judicious utterance. It seemed to me at times that he spoke too highly of some compositions. It is within my knowledge that upon one occasion he sent to a man whose article he had printed an autographic letter, the words of which were: "I thank you especially for to-day's article. It is profound, powerful, wise, and true." How many editors have we in the country who ever upon any occasion indulged in language as generous as this?

It is not my purpose, in this essay, to descant upon those elements in Mr. Dana's character or those features of his mind which have been brought to the notice of multitudes of his countrymen during the half-century of his life as a journalist. My design is merely to mark a few of the things which I learned about him during the twenty years that I spent in his office.

Upon many of the questions of the times, political and other, Mr. Dana held opinions with which I could not agree; but here, at this point, I desire to make an allusion to something which to me was always of supreme consequence. He never interfered with my moral independence, or sought to curtail my personal rights, or found fault with me for pursuing a course outside of *The Sun* office that may not have been to his liking. Between the time he took me on his staff and the time of his death I made hundreds of speeches that were out of accord with the principles and the policy which he maintained in his paper; but never did he make any objection to this conduct. Never did the service that I rendered to him clash with other duties that I sought to perform elsewhere. I think it is fitting and proper to allude to this matter here, for I never knew any editor other than Mr. Dana who would put up with a subordinate always ready to follow his own star. I never knew an instance in which he asked any man on his staff to write otherwise than he thought, or to palter with his conscience, or to compromise in a matter of honor. He despised the scribbling flunkey, the parasite whose life or conduct was governed by subserviency. He was an editor who rarely gave any instructions to a writer in whom he trusted. A resolute spirit he was, and toward some people a stern man; but freedom was never denied to any member of his staff.

Mr. Dana was sometimes severe in his censorship of manuscripts submitted to him. I have known him to write on the margin of a rejected article: "No good," or "It's too rough," or "All wrong," or "Not up to the mark," or other scarifying expression. His frankness in this respect was doubtless often useful to those persons who were made aware of it. It was not his habit to tell any one who offered him a manuscript that "lack of space" prevented its acceptance. "*The Sun*," he said to me when first I knew him, "is always ready for a good thing, and has always room for it."

In his opinion a writer should *think* before he wrote. "Think seriously," he once remarked; "don't write until you have thought." Surely this was a wise saying. Were all newspaper writers to give heed to it, lots of scribbled stuff would not soil white paper, and lots of it would never be put in print. About the fitness of things for publication he made this observation: "If a thing is not against propriety or virtue, and if it is interesting, it is fit to print. The public mind is like the sounding-board of a piano, on which it is our business to play, and to play all the keys." When the form of an article that once struck his fancy was spoken of as absurd, "Yes," he replied, "it looks absurd; but we may sometimes do things that look absurd at first sight. They may be good things to do." Again: "We must always seek to do the right thing, to tell the truth, to steer clear of wrong." Once again: "If the mayor shall appoint good men, we must stand up for him."

Such was the nature of some of the remarks which Mr. Dana dropped at times, and which may possibly serve for the guidance of other editors.

In all matters of detail, in literary manner, in the use of words, in grammar, punctuation, and typographical method he was the most careful and exacting of editors. One time an editorial contained two lines of poetry in type of the same size as that of the text, and, as I was the author of it, Mr. Dana sent me an edifying note under his familiar signature: "Reason, Revelation, Science, Philosophy, and Æsthetics, all require that these lines should have been put in small type." Upon another occasion, when he thought that a verb had been improperly used in a manuscript, he wrote an admonitory sentence: "To say 'there are' in this passage would be unpoetic, and consequently disgusting."

He took the blame whenever an error escaped his eye. "I take shame to myself," he wrote one time when the author of an editorial had confounded Boston brown bread with Graham bread, "for having printed this thing without scrutinizing it. *The Sun* is ignorant and wrong."

One day a man in California had sent an inquiry to the editor of *The Sun*: "Will you

please tell me how to become a Christian?" and as I often dealt with religious questions at the time this appeal was received Mr. Dana blue-penciled the back of the man's note with these words: "Why not give him a ripping answer? Give him the socialist side of Christianity."

When the writer of a book review had italicized eight or ten of his words, Mr. Dana commented thus: "This review is the best in the whole lot, and is very good; but why in the world an experienced writer like —— wants to pepper his manuscript with nasty little italics I can't imagine."

When the writer of an editorial paragraph in *The Sun* wrote of "Govs. Cameron and Crittenden," the ever-watchful critic in the sanctum got after him in a note left for me: "The term 'Govs.,' 'Gens.,' 'Capts.,' etc., is disgusting. The titles have no plural as attached to any individual name; they should be repeated, or a circumlocution should be used."

When the writer of an editorial had described a certain person as a "rum witness" in a case, Mr. Dana sent to me the following scrap in philology:

Rum—slang word, of gipsy origin. Rum chap—*Romany chabo*, a gipsy man. Not quite classical enough for solemn use, I fear.

In an editorial article printed in brevier type there had appeared an extract in agate type; the grammatical subject of a sentence was in brevier while the verb for it was in the subsequent agate line. Mr. Dana wrote for my benefit: "This passage from big type to little is contrary to all sound principles of typographical elegance. Greeley used to make the passage, and country newspapers still make it; but it is wicked."

When a writer for *The Sun* once described a man as "too condemn smart," the phrase was highly offensive to Mr. Dana, who wrote a caustic comment upon it in three words, which need not be here printed.

I could go on making quotations from Mr. Dana's letters and memoranda relating to matters of greater or lesser import which ran through many years. They came from a man who had for long years been spoken of as the "Dean of American editors," and whose reputation for intellectual power, as well as for scholarly and literary qualities, surpassed that of any other editor in the United States.

Is it worth while to tell the tales that here are told, or to mark the traits of character that here are traced? Had I not thought it was worth while, this essay would never have been written. I think that some features of Mr. Dana's character will be better understood by means of this sketch.

How did he find time to attend to matters which many men would regard as of small consequence, and also to handle the largest affairs that come within the observation of the editor of a New York daily newspaper? I will merely say that one had to know the man, know the character of his mind, know something of his extraordinary powers, and know how methodical he was in the performance of his duties, in order to answer this question with any measure of intelligence. Let the answer be left to his biographer.

THE BUBONIC PLAGUE IN INDIA.

BY ALESSANDRO LUSTIG, M.D.

TRANSLATED FOR "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FROM THE ITALIAN "NUOVA ANTOLOGIA."

INDIA, that enchanting land of dreams and oriental fantasies, the land of the palm and tamarind, most fertile in soil, most varied in climate, is also the land of pestilence and even famine. Malaria has its abode there, and leprosy and cholera. The beauties of nature are opposed by the scourges of humanity, and because of humanity's fault in great part. For with its mixture of religious creeds, its depraved superstitions, and its social system inherited from a remote past and still generally dominant in its primitive integrity, India is hopelessly given over to practices antag-

onistic in their very essence to the laws of health and safety. Its European rulers have not yet been able to impress upon it any idea of progress or social evolution, which with other peoples is the beginning and reason of their civilization. The English, who know the customs, beliefs, and manners of the people most thoroughly, have accomplished but little, with all their thoughtful and prudent tactics, in the way of correcting the abuses of the body and its surroundings which obtain among the ignorant inhabitants.

Last year the torrential rains which are usually so constant during the period of the monsoon failed to come. The crops of rice and millet, the chief and almost the only nutriment of the Hindus, were very poor. Consequently there was want, wretchedness, and hunger, the very best preparation for infectious diseases. The few cases of plague scattered here and there in the country districts soon multiplied under the influence of these agencies. The authorities and the people, accustomed as they are to certain maladies which occur in Europe in the form of epidemics only, while in India they are chronic in their permanency, took very little notice of these beginnings of the future pestilence, and consequently provided no efficacious means to prevent its spreading. Only when the mortality from it among the natives had increased to a frightful extent, and danger menaced the Europeans also, who are more capable of resisting infection than the Hindus, did the government grow alarmed and think seriously of opposing barriers to its virulence. It was in December that the terrible epidemic showed itself, especially in Bombay, after famine had driven the population of the rural cantons into the great city. The descriptions which eye-witnesses have given of its ravages remind one of the classic pages of Boccaccio and Manzoni.

Terror and confusion reigned at Bombay and in all the Presidency. Finally the governor thought he ought to intervene directly, and so instituted a committee on the plague, the chairman of which was General Gatacre, a man endowed with unusual energy and courage. That the disease was confined to certain regions of India and did not find its way to Europe I believe is due to this man, and to the prudent and energetic use he made of his unlimited authority. The difficulties and perils he encountered in showing how beneficial the work of the committee might be were of the most serious nature. Although in all his regulations he aimed to show the greatest possible respect for the irrational traditions and sentiments of the natives, yet it will be remembered that valuable members of the committee were killed by the excited fanaticism of the Hindus while they were engaged in the task of performing their onerous duties, and that revolts and bloodshed occurred here and there. For example, Rande was killed at Poona and the physicians had to be escorted to the hospital by the lancers. The Brahmans, who are malcontents for their own personal interest, fanned the flame. The recent trial and condemnation of some native journalists was occasioned by their assuming such an attitude.

If the rapidity of the spread of the pestilence is singular and impressive, on the other hand its actual effects are quite simple, to the physician at least. The cholera is much more terrible in this respect. The descriptions of the phenomena which were presented by the great epidemics of the Middle Ages are in great part due to chroniclers or literary men rather than to physicians, and therefore probably contain much that is fantastic—unless we consent to admit that sicknesses have changed their characteristics. The swelling bubonic symptoms are not always present in this plague, but other more serious manifestations are quite as frequent, due to the invasion of the blood by the bacillus. The external bubon is not to be compared with this internal form. Inflammation of the lungs and intestines is quite common also, and delirium and raving are not more serious or characteristic here than in other infectious maladies of the febrile type, such as abdominal typhus and simple pneumonia.

Toward the middle of June, this last summer, the plague seemed already to have

lost its virulence at Bombay, when suddenly it acquired new power, not only in Bombay but at Poona and elsewhere. However, exact statistics of disease are not possible in India, where not a few of the inhabitants of the large towns live a nomad life, out of doors, in the streets and squares, without any fixed and stable roof over their heads. Still less can one make an approximation at the number of deaths, for the corpses of many Hindus are thrown into the rivers or sacred ponds in obedience to certain rites, or are burnt in the thickets without the authorities knowing anything of it, even if they should wish to do so. The natives also are very unwilling to go to the hospital, very much as Europeans often are. When they find themselves forced to go there in spite of themselves, each prefers the hospital of his own caste.

In these hospitals—almost as numerous as the castes into which the population is divided—the physicians are almost all natives. Europeans are found only in the military and municipal hospitals, where they form the directing element. The native physicians are Hindus and Parsees mainly. The latter may have acquired their profession in England or in some other foreign country. On the other hand, the Hindus are all educated in some one of the Indian schools, since a follower of Brahma is not supposed to cross the ocean, nor eat food which he himself or some one of his race or caste has not prepared. In general they do not gain much profit from their studies. For instance, in order to preserve the custom of the country they go about barefooted, even into the pest houses. The relatives and even the numerous wives of the patient usually accompany him to the hospital, in order to tender him affectionate service. You will perhaps hear them, as I did at Poona, refuse food to the patient because they knew it was prepared by a Hindu cook belonging to a lower caste. So to avoid every pretext of disorder and revolt the doctor must see that the hospital is provided with cooks of every caste. Furthermore, the Parsees, who represent the keenest, most intelligent, and most productive portion of the population, and who, although in a minority (in Bombay they number seventy thousand out of the nine hundred thousand inhabitants), have won a material and moral hegemony over the other races, give the bodies of their dead as food to crows and vultures without the government even thinking of forbidding it.

The Hindus, on the other hand, burn their dead; but their method of cremation is so imperfect that the vultures are constantly bringing portions of unconsumed flesh from their cemeteries. Only the Moslems bury their deceased, yet so superficially that the tremendous rains of the wet season uncover the bodies in their largest cemetery. There are other causes which help to injure the hygienic conditions of this country, such as a tropical climate, the community of life between animals and man, and the practice of ablution in those rivers and ponds which superstition considers sacred, and which are very often foul and infected with all that is noxious.

Scarcely had the epidemic appeared when the governments and scientific societies of the principal civilized nations sent commissions of experts to India, to investigate the manner of the propagation of the malady, the anatomical alterations it produces, the force of resistance of the bacillus in question, and to try, by experimenting on animals liable to be affected, to find out whether vaccination has any efficacy in preserving the organism from infection; finally to report on the curative methods which might be tried. Egypt, which has a very well organized sanitary service and is nearest to India, was the first to set the good example. Next came the Austrian commission, which preferred to work on the clinical and anatomical side. The German followed later, then the Russian, which located at the French consul's for lack of a suitable place for its laboratories elsewhere. The English government did all it could to aid the researches of all these learned men and satisfy their scientific desires.

Bombay was the common center of observation. Here important problems were

solved. The bacillus of the plague was discovered, the sole cause of the disease. Fortunately this bacillus does not oppose much resistance to the action of liquid disinfectants. From experiments on animals, rats and apes, the scientists concluded that it can enter the animal organism by way of the skin, the lungs, and the intestines. Often it stops in the lungs or intestines. More often it stays directly in the blood. The bubonic form is not always the most frequent. The plague is one of those diseases which can be fought with cleanliness, by energetic and radical disinfection, and best of all by the strict isolation of suspects and patients. The problem of greater scientific interest must be the one of vaccination, which may prevent the bubonic bacillus from germinating. The first researches in this direction were made by Yersin, who tried to procure the curative serum from the horse by injecting directly into the veins of the animal, at intervals of a few weeks, the virulent plague cultures.

I myself received some very virulent cultures last December through the courtesy of a Russian colleague, and entered on some investigations with the help of Dr. Galeotti, my assistant in the Higher Institute at Florence. I reproduced the different forms I obtained by inoculating animals in various ways with the germs, choosing especially those animals that naturally die of the pest and are most sensitive to the action of the germ, such as mice and rats. We tried Yersin's method on these animals, but soon saw how dangerous it was, being capable of producing the plague, or at least of spreading it. We then tried other methods, and finally succeeded in rendering our rats and other animals altogether insensible to the action of the most pestiferous bacillus. The substance which attained this result, the vaccine matter, was obtained from millions of the plague germs which had been developed in a medium of artificial nutrition at about the temperature of the human body. In doses of eight and thirty-five hundredths milligrams for every hundred grams of the rat's weight we found that the vaccine was fatal. But injected in less doses under the skin and diluted with alkaline water it only produced a slight disturbance which would last for two or three days, after which time the animal would endure the inoculation with the greatest indifference. For man it was entirely harmless. Neither I myself nor Dr. Galeotti, nor the others who lent themselves to the experiment, felt any serious effects from the injection of two milligrams under the skin of the arm, other than a slight fever for two days and a little reddening of the place where the injection was made. The most robust persons suffered a mild reaction from the vaccination, the feeble a little greater. The vaccine matter does not contain either living or dead pest bacilli. It can be preserved in a dry state for months.

Having satisfied ourselves with the results we had obtained, we prepared to carry our serum to the countries infested by the plague. We got ready good vaccine and a great quantity of serum, from a horse vaccinated as I have stated, and would have started for Bombay the first of last April. But such an undertaking is not within the power of simple individuals. Government and academic support, both material and moral, must be furnished. Finally the last difficulties were overcome by patience and help of interested friends, and at the end of May four of us physicians set out for India. We had plenty of vaccine and serum, the necessary instruments for the establishment of a laboratory, and enough funds from the government and one individual to facilitate our work.

We reached Bombay on June 12, when the monsoon and its rains could have made our task all the harder. The plague, after some days of gradual decrease, was now increasing in virulence, especially at Poona and Lanowli, and the cholera was also assuming the form of an epidemic. Thanks to the aid of the English authorities we were able to begin our study of the plague patients in the hospitals at once, while at the same time we were experimenting on apes, which are very sensitive to the plague and present a diagnosis quite like that of a man. These experiments gave satisfactory results. From the apes we

passed on to human beings. After six hours the effects of the serum would be evident. The high fever would diminish, the raving would cease, the delirium would give way to a general improvement. After the second or third day the swellings would cease to be painful. A condition of comfort would intervene and convalescence would be less protracted and weakening than in the cases, infrequent to be sure, where the patient was cured spontaneously. Out of thirty patients that we treated only four died. The number of our tests was not large, but they were the only tests made by serum on undoubted cases of the plague, and serve to show the efficacy of the treatment. We were led by them to hope that if applied on a large scale our method of vaccination might diminish by eighty per cent and more the average mortality of the disease. And it is to be noted that, out of 12,796 cases reported at Bombay up to September 1, 10,786 died.

We were satisfied with our curative method. I should also have liked to try our means of prevention, which I naturally thought could give good results. But preventive vaccination cannot be well carried on in a country like India, in the midst of a population entirely opposed to it. Besides, the only way to determine whether vaccination would be effective would be to notice how many of those inoculated would afterward die of the plague. This is a practical impossibility at present in India. So far as our treatment of the apes was concerned, it was found that those vaccinated were entirely free from plague symptoms, while the others not so treated, but which were inoculated with the virus, all died. This immunity certainly lasted for a month. How much longer it may last our experiments now going on will eventually determine. If we had been able to carry out the cruel experiment of vaccinating a hundred persons, and after some weeks inoculate them with the plague germ and watch the results, the problem of vaccination would now be definitely solved on man as well. But living in India was too expensive for us and the preparation of the serum not less costly. After a stay of two months we were obliged to come back to Florence, with the satisfaction, however, of having attained the object of our journey.

NEWHAVEN FISHER-FOLK.

BY LAURA B. STARR.

IN the quaint little fishing village of Newhaven, on the east coast of Scotland, three miles to the north of Edinburgh, lives a colony of fisher-folk whose mode of life, manners, customs, style of dress, religious faith, and superstitions have remained the same for four hundred years or more. In the middle of the fifteenth century there was by the side of the sea a little fishing hamlet of a dozen or two cottages, wherein lived, loved, and died the simple folk whose sea harvest was their only means of subsistence. About this time James IV., wishing to encourage the industry and enterprise which he saw manifest among these hardy people, built houses and docks, established a rope walk, and endowed the village with "certain burgal privileges" from which it soon grew to be a port of commercial importance. Its inhabitants, thought by some to be of Flemish origin, live quite apart from the people of the surrounding country, marry among themselves as religiously as the Jews, follow the sea to a man, as did their parents and grandparents before them, and preserve their ancient customs intact.

Newhaven is among the few places in the world which have partially escaped the destructive influence of steam and electricity, those advance agents of civilization whose combined efforts will contrive sooner or later to destroy all individuality of nations and make every country and people exactly like every other country and people. Much of its picturesqueness has disappeared un-

NEWHAVEN WOMEN BAITING LINES.

der the hand of the modern architect and the influx of summer visitors; yet it is unique as the home of a peculiar people who still cling to the social and commercial traditions of ancient days.

With the exception of one street which faces the sea and is of good width, the old part of the town consists of a series of "closes"—narrow alleys—intersecting each other occasionally at right angles, but more often taking an unexpected turn without giving the slightest premonition of such intention. The houses are "a' heids and thraws," to use their own expression; *i. e.*, set down here and there without any regard to architectural form or beauty. They are usually two stories, with an outside stairway. At the best of times there is but a hand's breadth of sky visible in the narrow street; but when the weekly washing is suspended from numberless lines, crossing from house to house, and the matter is further complicated by endless stretches of brown, black, and yellow bladders—floaters—far above the house-tops, blowing in the wind and bobbing in a most fantastic manner, little enough of light and sunshine find ingress to the dwellings.

If the visitor chance first to see Newhaven, as I did, on a glorious September afternoon, when the air is bright and clear; when the salt-sea smell coming in with the billows of the German Ocean is like the breath of life in one's nostrils; when the blue waters of the Forth ripple and murmur softly as the dancing boats speed hither and yon over their surface; when groups of children, broad-beamed as the young of Flanders, waddle about the streets or crawl along the sands, unconsciously making "bits" worthy of an artist's sketch-book; when the warm sunshine bathes the whole place in a mellow glow and nature seems to be doing her best to hide the ugliness of man's handiwork—if the appreciative visitor happen to see Newhaven on such a day as this, then will he say that it was more than a happy chance that set this cluster of fishermen's cottages in so romantic a spot.

All along the sea-wall at irregular intervals sat young fishwives, each with a basin of mussels in her lap, "baiting the lines," as

PREPARING FOR THE FISHING GROUND.

one of them told me, with her quaint Scotch inflection. By her side, in a great heap, were five miles of line with fifteen hundred hooks attached to it; this she moved slowly across her lap from one side to the other, as by a dexterous turn or two of the wrist she impaled a soft mussel upon a hook. Other women, gossiping across the close, were seated on the outer stairs of their little homes engaged in a similar occupation. Over the railings and shrouding the paling in front of the kirk hung nets, bladders, lines, oilskin coats, huge home-made stockings, and other paraphernalia of the fisherman's trade. Here and there were knots of men of all ages "walking their very short turns of three steps and one overboard" or listlessly lolling about with pipe in mouth and hands thrust idly into their pockets; for to a Newhaven man the idea of work when he is on shore is entirely foreign.

It was a casual word from a stranger that sent me to explore this most delightful place, and I have never ceased to be thankful for that word, for each succeeding visit fascinated me more and more. I made friends with a toothless old "salt," who gave me a most interesting account of some of the curious customs connected with the place and further added to my indebtedness by introducing me to some "old bodies" who took me to their homes, showed me every nook and corner in them, and entertained me with tales of bygone days. They seemed not to mind my prying about, but talked freely and showed me all their belongings with delightful frankness. This may be accounted for by the fact that since Queen Victoria on her first visit to Edinburgh took notice of them and complimented them on their good looks and picturesque costumes they have been the object of great interest to tourists, and so have lost their habitual shyness. Not that the Newhaven fishwife is of herself ever shy, but she was formerly much more reserved about taking strangers into her home. Now it is a frequent occurrence. One of them told me she had to "take the clothes off her back" for a French lady who had visited her and wanted them for a fancy-dress ball.

Since the days of steam trawling and rapid transit, the fishwives of Newhaven, whom George IV. pronounced the hand-

somest women he had ever seen, have found their occupation nearly gone, though they themselves are as sturdy and strong and fine-looking as ever. In the highways and byways of the modern Athens, where a few decades ago dozens of them flaunted their gay, voluminous petticoats and filled the air with their cries of "Caller herrin,' caller herrin'," and the odor of fish, there is only now and then one; but in spite of changes the one is as distinctive of her race as were the many in days gone by.

Having tramped the three miles which separate Edinburgh from the sea, bending under a burden that would almost crush a strong man, she jauntily treads the pavement, apparently unmindful of the creel laden to the brim with shining, silvery creatures fresh from the waters of the Forth. To announce her coming she sends forth at regular intervals a clear, mellow, musical cry distinctive of her calling.

The ordinary dress of the fishwife consists of from three to nine woolen petticoats, reaching about half-way from the knee to the ankle and measuring at least three yards in width. All the under ones have a tuck an inch and a half deep run all the way round the top about an eighth of a yard below the waistband. This is done for the purpose of making a more solid support for the basket upon which the creel rests.

Each fishwife, rich or poor, is the possessor of three gay petticoats, which are worn over the dark flannel ones; the foundation is white and all are marked with broad vertical stripes of a solid, vivid coloring, red, yellow, or blue. Each one has a wide tuck about six inches from the bottom. The bodices are loose jackets, "shuguns," or short gowns, made of bright-figured cambric or calico, and confined at the waist by the apron-strings; the sleeves are made of a square of the cambric reaching nearly to the wrists, but they are nearly always rolled over two or three times until they come only to the elbow. A bright ribbon confines the garment at the neck and finishes it with a bow and ends. The apron is long and full; the lower edge and the outer skirt are pinned together at the bottom and caught up to the hips on either side, which adds to the width, making the woman look broader than ever. A separate pocket fastened with a draw-string is worn underneath the apron; this is the fishwife's bank, where she carries the money of the family, which is always given into her keeping. Thick worsted stockings and heavy, high boots complete, with the exception of the head-gear, a picturesque and very becoming costume.

Formerly all women wore caps, similar to the mob or Dutch cap, with wide fluted borders, standing up fully three inches above the forehead and quite out from the face. Nowadays only a few of the older ones are seen with these; others wear a small shawl over the head, folded cornerwise and tied under the chin, and a similar one is often laid across the shoulders. When marketing their fish they throw over their shoulders a long dark woolen cloak with wide sleeves which hang dangling uselessly at the sides. This is more to catch the dripping brine than for warmth. They carry their creels as the *cargodores* and *mozos* of Mexico and Central America do, with the burden resting on the forehead and high on the shoulders by means of a broad leather band which rests on a napkin laid flat on the forehead. The creel is supported by a long, narrow basket which rests on the fulness of the petticoats, and is usually empty. Occasionally fish are put into the basket as well as into the creel, but this makes a burden too heavy for any woman, and health soon fails under it.

The women are frugal and industrious; all the money earned is given into their hands and is disbursed at their pleasure. They take good care of their homes and to minister to the comfort of their "gude men" seems to be their greatest delight. The generally accepted idea among them is that the woman is the natural protector of the man. They are famous knitters and when not at work with fish are seldom seen without needles and wool in their hands. They knit the handsome Guernsey shirts which the men and boys wear, adorning them with a great variety of fancy stitches, and the woman who should buy a pair of woven or machine-

NEWHAVEN FISHWIVES.

made hose for her family would be thought unworthy the name of fishwife. Unmarried girls, when pursuing the trade of hawking fish, are called fishwives, as their married sisters are, and they wear the same dress, except that their heads are bare.

A buxom fishwife who showed me her house and wardrobe said that when she was married a few years ago she had but "one end," meaning a one-room cottage; now, with three children, she boasted "two ends"—two rooms. There was a bed in each of the two rooms, and, although somewhat crowded, there was a delightful air of neatness and domesticity about the place. She spoke of the change that had come

over the community within the past few years by the introduction of different modes of fishing, etc., and said that they were not so well off as they had been.

"But you look very comfortable," said I.

"O aye, we canna complain as far as our hame goes, an' my gude man—'deed I'm ashamed t' hae it sayed we're as fond as twa bairns. Eh me, but it's sair work sittin' here when they're a' off wi' the boats, and may be no hearin' onything but frae the papers fur weeks an' weeks, and no hearin' whether he's well or no! But 'deed, we maun put up wi' something in this world."

She had found the true philosophy of life without knowing it, and the look of patient resignation soon gave place to one of cheery hopefulness, which I am sure must be a source of comfort to the "gude man" of whom she spoke so fondly. They are a stanch and loyal people, domestic happiness being the rule among them. Their friendship, once given, is given for life.

A rather curious custom is that of "chumming." Girls select a "chum" of their own sex in early childhood, and, although they are friendly and sometimes intimate with others, the "chum" is the nearest and dearest to the end of their days. I tried to discover if mistakes were not sometimes made in the selection—if in after life they might not have desired to have made a change; but my informant would not acknowledge to any such fickleness on the part of the fishwives.

The fisher-folk are full of whimsicalities and superstitions; luck is their tutelary god, and they never do anything important without performing some act to ward off or avert a possible evil. They do not like to be asked where they are going while on their way to their boats; neither do they like to be counted as they walk along. They dare not think of a cat or a pig while at sea, or at least to mention them except by some mysterious allusion. If an accident happens and a person is drowned from an open boat, they beach it high and dry and never use it again—an expensive superstition it would seem. Friday is an unlucky day for everything save weddings. To think of dogs or hares is a terrible omen, and, fond as most of them are of their clergyman, they do not mention his name at sea, or if they must speak of him they say "the man in the black coat." They tell us of a man who long ago lived among them whose name was John Broemger. Having fallen into hard times he begged his fish from door to door. If his alms were not given as freely as he thought they should be he had a way of cursing the fishers and wishing them ill luck on their next trip—which sometimes came, and the consequence was that he soon came to have his claim recognized, for no man cared to venture to sea with the dread curse hanging over him. Now if one say to a crew at sea "John Broemger's in your head sheets" or "on board of you" they will at once haul in the dredge, ship their oars, and pull the boat thrice round in a circle to break the evil spell; with some the feeling is so strong they will stop work at once.

Continual intermarriage has caused no small confusion in the nomenclature of the people. Girls often change their condition without changing their name. To distinguish them the wife's name is usually added to the husband's—that is when they are spoken of formally; in ordinary conversation the wife is called by her own name after marriage the same as before. But this trouble is by no means the only one resulting from generations of intermarriage, as the number of their people in the insane asylum attests. "What is a young man to do?" said one of the fishermen when spoken to upon the subject. "He can't take a wife from the agricultural people. No young woman not brought up as a fishwife would undertake the hard work of a fisherman's wife. She must not only wear a picturesque costume and hawk fish about the streets, but she must gather mussels for bait, mend the nets, bait the lines, and be able to lend a hand with an oar or tiller when necessary." Besides this she must be able to do her share toward taking care of the fish when the boats come in, for the minute they touch the quay the men leave them. Their work is done then and the

women's work begins. Charles Kingsley tells us that

men must work and women must weep,

but the Newhaven fishwife must add a great amount of manual labor to her weeping. Christie Johnson puts it rather more plainly when she tells Lord Ipsden that

Labor is the lot o' man, and abune a' o' woman's.

The married state would seem to hold out few inducements to the young women of Newhaven; but being born and bred to such conditions, they seem not to find them hard. A familiar saying among them is: "The woman that canna work for a man is no worth one." Some one tells a story that when a young girl, rather delicate for a Newhaven woman, was about to be married, another, a beautifully robust specimen, said: "What! Jenny Flucker taking a man! She's a gude cheek! Hoo is she to keep him? The poor man 'll hae tae sell his fish as well as catch them."

Long ago Charles Reade said that the old fishwives were blackguards and ugly. They are not that now; they are subdued and reputable. Their brown, weather-beaten faces, surrounded by masses of white frilling, are good to look upon; their eyes are bright and their steps elastic with much of the vigor of youth. Many of them are old before their time, for the heavy creel soon bends the form and the cruel winds and storms of the Scottish coast quickly play havoc with the fairest complexion. They are good at a bargain, as they must needs be, and they now and then undoubtedly do take advantage of their customer's ignorance or gullibility; but on the whole they are honest, and considering the hazardous nature of the "gude man's" occupation little wonder is it that they occasionally tell a customer that "fish are no fish the day, they're just men's lives," or that they frequently ask double the market price for their commodity. One forlorn fishwife who had been haggling with a cook about the price of her fish said at last: "Tak it or want it; ye may think it dear, but it's a' that's left to me for a faither o' four bairns."

MAIN STREET OF NEWHAVEN.

A gentleman still a resident of the town, though he has forsaken the calling of his forefathers, reverted to the terrible disaster of October 14, 1881, when seventeen Newhaven fishermen lost their lives. The

storm is set down in the annals of the town as one of the most severe that has ever visited the coast, and it is even now spoken of with bated breath. When the fury of the storm had subsided some of the bodies were washed ashore and found a resting-place in the common burying-ground, where it is the desire of each one to be laid when his fishing days are over. There is an old grass-grown cemetery in the center of the town—without headstones, which are never used there—where for centuries the Newhaven people have laid away their dead, with many a quaint and curious custom.

Newhaven became a Protestant town in the early days of the Reformation, and has remained so. In spite of the bad name the fishwives have in bargaining, the people have always been deeply religious.

The fishwife who sells oysters about the streets of Edinburgh at eventide does not differ from the herring-hawker, save that her cry runs the entire gamut of the scale and the last high note is indefinitely prolonged. Those who but once hear the melodious call will never forget it.

Oysters are rare along the coast now and it is only occasionally that the "wild sea-bird cry" is heard. A garrulous "old body" who enjoyed telling tales of "auld lang syne" said that she could remember the time when a dozen bivalves were bought for a ha'penny, and that she had occasionally seen an audacious youngster offer the fishwife a kiss for a thirteenth, but that he as often received a sound box on the ear as he did the oyster, and sometimes both.

For a century and a half Newhaven has been renowned for its fish dinners. Few people visit Edinburgh without learning the way to Peacock's Hotel and tasting the mussel haggis, Lady Lee's crab pie, crabbit head, John Dorry, skate, cod, haddies, and flounders for which the Peacock's cook is famed in song and story. At one time it was a custom among the business men of Edinburgh to repair to the Peacock on Saturday afternoon and celebrate the close of the week with one of these famous fish dinners. I enjoyed one during one of my prowling days, at a little inn quite in the center of the old part of the town. I sat at a clothless little table, enclosed on either side like a high church pew. The good cooking and unaccustomed surroundings made that solitary dinner a lasting delight.

NEWHAVEN FISHERMEN.

A GENTLEMAN OF DIXIE.

BY ELLEN CLAIRE CAMPBELL.

CHAPTER XVIII. *(Continued).*

THE HORRORS OF WAR.

EDITH sank in a heap on the floor. But the concluding trial of the day was yet to come. When his men returned, carrying the body of the young soldier and supporting one of their own number who had been hit by George's true shot, the commandant came near surpassing all his previous efforts in the matter of rage. Balked the second time at Heart's Delight, he would have murdered the whole garrison if he could. As he was denied satisfaction in this way, he swore with a cruel oath he would burn the place to the ground. It should no longer exist as a nest to harbor vipers. To resolve was to act. The only wonder is that he had not destroyed it before.

That night about eight o'clock, for the second time this wretched day, a band of troopers filled the yard. It was a fitting close to the blackest day of Edith's calendar, not excepting the one when she sent Max away, or that later time when Mrs. Seddon lay dead.

In vain she implored and commanded. The captain greeted her entreaties with sneers and her commands with curses. He carefully went through the rooms, appropriating every article he could conveniently carry away. His followers, imitating his example, did the same. Then inflammable materials were piled against the walls and lighted. Higher and higher leaped the flames, his glee growing ever more and more fiendish as he watched them. Every tongue of fire that licked its stealthy way among sills and rafters and beams personified revenge for the imaginary insults he had received there. He seemed to feel that he was breaking down the master's superiority in destroying his property, and rejoiced accordingly.

It was well that Edith had others depending on her for their night's shelter; it calmed and nerved her as nothing else could have done. There was her own home, The Oaks—closed these many months; thank God, they had that refuge! She went to the quarters to pacify and reassure the terrified darkies the best she could. Then, when Wire's attention was distracted by his gratification, she ordered Job to get the carriage ready. The burning building shed the brightness of day for yards around, but the cautious Job drove the carriage to the dark side of the barn and there they entered it—Mrs. Dupey, Edith, and Nell, with Job and Hannah.

At the farthest gate they met Richard Allyn. He had seen the fire from Jefferson and hurried out.

"My dear Miss Chester, what does this mean?" he exclaimed.

The sympathetic tone was too much. Edith burst into a storm of tears and left to the others the explanation.

"The dastardly wretch!" cried Allyn at the close. "This is not war, but robbery. He shall pay for it if I spend my life achieving it!"

CHAPTER XIX.

IN THE TOILS.

CAPTAIN SEDDON learned of their father's tragic end from the younger Dupeys, but he was ignorant of all the fateful happenings at his own home till he was within the trenches at Vicksburg. Here he received a budget of papers and letters by the secret mail service, which was the only means of communication with the North. He read the letter describing the burning of his home twice over. He read it with dry eyes, but with grim and bitter defiance. That home he had so fondly christened Heart's Delight in ashes! The hoary trees in which he had delighted as sublime poems of the nature he reverenced lifting

unsightly, blackened torsos to the spring sky!

His first impulse was to fly homeward. In a spasm of homesickness he felt that he could not stay away. After the Emancipation Proclamation was issued he had entertained the project of getting a brief furlough that he might quiet the cares he feared Edith must be harassed by. So far from the scene, he magnified the changes the document of freedom might produce on the border. Then, in a consolidation of companies and regiments, he was promoted to a colonelcy, and his additional duties and responsibilities had precluded his applying for leave of absence. Now the need for his going was removed; it mattered not if every servant he owned ran away. But again the heart-sickness for the cherished objects of his love flamed into intensest life. Oblivious to the cannon's roar and the rattle of musketry, he sat with the letter on his knee, as wrapped in solitude as though in a desert. Should he attempt to pass the enemy's lines? Should he even ask leave? That was the perplexity.

He did not ponder long. His life was his country's, he had told Edith. The words recurred to him and he sprang to his feet. Yes, and a thousand more if he had them to give! Go home now, even if he were permitted? None but a craven—a poltroon—would think of it. In another moment he was back at his post, toiling, starving, encouraging, inspiring, seemingly ever dauntless, ever heroic.

Before the end of the month he was summoned to a momentous council of war. The fatal siege was nearly over. It had been a forlorn hope from the first, and in the face of nothing to eat within the entrenchment and a countless host of the enemy without, that hope had perished. Matters had reached a crisis. A rumor was abroad among the soldiers that the last assault would be made in a day or two. The Federals were calling to Johnny Reb from their lines that they would dine on the Fourth of July in Vicksburg, and though Johnny answered the boast with a round of shot the words went home.

All this Colonel Seddon's superior officers were discussing in the council. Their whole tenor was toward capitulation. Not a ray of sunlight penetrated the Egyptian darkness—surrender was the only course.

The colonel sat silent until one of the others said, "Tell us what you think is best, colonel."

His words came slowly. "I do not, of course, question the wisdom and sagacity of what you propose, and if it were a matter touching ourselves alone I should say surrender to-night. But when I think of the awful consequences involved I cannot say it. Within a week after Vicksburg falls Port Hudson will have gone the same road. Then the Mississippi is opened from mouth to source and the Confederacy cut in two. As long as there is a shadow—not of success, which is impossible—but of trying anything which will save us from utter ruin, I would choose that."

"What in the name of God is left to us?"

"I do not know that anything is, but it is possible we might still get help from Johnston. My plan would be to confer with him before we decide on surrender. We can manage to exist a week longer. In a week the whole aspect may be changed."

"Communication with Johnston is almost impossible. If we could—"

"I will go."

"You! Alone?"

"Yes. I know the situation and could talk with him more intelligently than one of lower rank. One man has a better chance of running the blockade than more. If I fail it will still be better, for only one man will be lost."

His courage infused something of hope into the others.

"If Johnston should agree that it will be practicable to leave Jackson, what then?" he was asked.

"I do not like to suggest anything until I have seen him and have reported his opinion to our general here. I have a dozen schemes in my mind—perhaps all are wild. One is for him to engage the enemy and at the same time for us to try to cut our way out."

"It cannot be done," said the commander thoughtfully. "The disparity of numbers is too great. Besides our men are too weakened by short rations. They can neither march nor fight."

"Give them a full meal once more. Collect all the provisions possible and fill their stomachs. Then show them this last hope. Take my word for it, every man will fight as he never fought before, and I think they have proved on other fields what valor is. The world never saw volunteer troops like ours. Not even Napoleon's famous legions quite equaled them."

There was hearty agreement to this encomium, and again the colonel's confidence was contagious.

"But I do not say the plan is practicable," he continued. "I do not even mean to suggest it. But do permit me to go to Jackson. I can drop down the river on a raft or in a shallow skiff below the Federal fortifications, then make my way to the capital. The return will be more dangerous, but I shall use all prudence."

"We could ill afford to lose you, colonel," said the general sincerely, "but in memory of past services I cannot refuse. When will you go?"

"To-night, unless there is too much danger of detection. There was a fog last night, and one could easily have passed the gunboats. If there should not be a fog to-night I must go to-morrow night no matter what the risk is."

"Yes, the sooner the better. Every day lessens the chances for success."

Unfortunately the night proved clear, but the colonel stoutly maintained his purpose to postpone the attempt only one day longer. The second night, however, was all that could be desired. Early in the evening a dense fog enveloped river, town, and fortifications like a pall. The lights along the shore were blurred, and their beams strove ineffectually to pierce the vapor. A boat which exactly met the requirements, its edge dipping almost to the water, had been provided, and in it Colonel Seddon embarked as soon as the night had fairly set in. He hugged the shore whenever possible and more than once ran the gauntlet past the sharp-eyed sentinels by help of the shelving lee of their own boats.

He undertook the journey with a desperation that knew no fear, and accomplished it by dogged perseverance. On the second day he arrived at Jackson more dead than alive. He would probably never have reached it at all had he not fallen in with a boy whose heart was with the South and who guided him to his destination more proudly than a loyal page would serve his lord.

After all, his mission was a failure. General Johnston, for valid reasons which need not be detailed here, declared any movement on his part utterly infeasible, and the colonel, deeply disappointed as he was, was forced to acquiesce in the other's judgment. But he accepted the decision as one drinks wormwood. All his characteristic buoyancy melted away. In a moment, it seemed to him, the youthful spirit which had survived so many shocks left him and he became an old man.

He did not tarry at Jackson. He might have remained there, or, if he had chosen, have undertaken his long-desired visit home, but he scorned either course. He would go back to the trenches of Vicksburg and share the fate of those with whom he had marched and tented and bivouacked and starved and fought—how long?—two years! They seemed ten.

After some hours of necessary rest he set out upon his return, accompanied by two soldiers who were to escort him to the Yazoo. There he hoped to find a boat or raft by which he could make his way down the river to the Mississippi and thus reach the city. It was a road hedged in by untold peril. The Federal guards and fortifications covered the hillsides, and every rod of waterway within miles of the beleaguered fortress was under the same vigilance.

The stretch to the river was accomplished in safety. They directed their course far enough north to be outside the enemy's fortifications, and thus made the Yazoo with little risk. A boat could not be procured, but a makeshift was discovered in the shape of a

log, and with a pole for steering Colonel Seddon once more entrusted himself to the water.

As before, all went well during the night, but when the dawn began to lift itself above the hills on his left he was still several miles from Vicksburg. He dared not go on; to land might be worse. While he was debating what would be best the east was heralding the morning with tints deeper and still deeper; he must decide. Finally he chose the horn of the dilemma that appeared the less perilous—he landed in a spot that looked as though no human foot had ever strayed over its mossy slopes, thickly screened as it was by overhanging boughs. He landed, and ten minutes later was captive to a band of soldiers who were in watching, ready to cut off his passage if he continued his downward journey.

Thus ended the mission he had undertaken with such high hope. Two days later Vicksburg was in the possession of Union troops and he was on his way up the Mississippi to a northern prison.

He heard of the surrender without emotion. His distress in anticipation had been too realistic for him to feel additional pain over the actual fact. But a day later the news of Gettysburg sounded like a knell to his tortured soul, and completed the work begun by hardship and anxiety, helped out by the enervating southern summer. Within a week, tossed by fever and racked by hideous specters, he lay in the hospital of the prison.

The weeks dragged by. His prison was not unlike others of the Civil War—no better, no worse. One does not expect luxurious appointments or royal fare at such a place. He endured all privations like a Stoic. The only barb that rankled was his detention when his country had crying need of men. To get well and be exchanged was the hope on which he fed. "Get me well! get me well!" was his daily prayer to the surgeon.

This surgeon had the stamp of the Great Physician. He was humanity and gentleness impersonated, tinctured with humor and formed by skill. A sick man was his delight—he could make him well. He stood six feet two in his stockings and had breadth and heart in proportion. He needed both. He loved the Union as his life and yet spent his days and his nights in healing the enemies of the Union that they might make fresh attempts to disrupt it. In his professional capacity he valued the life of the individual beyond that of the nation. Thanks to him, Colonel Seddon recovered, and recovered with undying gratitude.

"Tut, man!" the surgeon said, "you needn't thank me. I've worked as hard to save the rag-tag of your army." His eyes twinkled. "But I served the Union better in saving them than you." Then his tenderness burst through the husk. "Thank God, you are nearly well! But I ought to be sorry. They'll be exchanging you with the next batch and—I'll miss you." They grasped hands and their friendship was sealed.

But the "next batch" did not contain the colonel's name. Nor the next. September had limped away on crippled feet; October was going the same gait, and still there was no probability of exchange. His chance had passed with his convalescence. With each day his unrest increased. At the prison he was nearer home than he had been since he joined the army after his wife's death. If only he could get away! Naturally he planned escape, and even began to put several schemes into execution, to find they would not succeed. Nevertheless he continued to plot.

One morning the surgeon, his face betokening concern, hunted him out.

"You have news. What is it?" asked the colonel. He had learned to read the other's face.

"There is to be another exchange of convalescent prisoners—five hundred! The names are enrolled."

"When?"

"Day after to-morrow. A boat will take them a short distance down the river and turn them over to Confederate authorities."

"My name is not on the list, is it? I am not convalescent. Why do you tell me of it? Is there something more?"

"Yes. One of the men on the list is ill

—I might say dying. He has relapsed and cannot recover."

"Well?"

"You could take his place."

The colonel rose. His voice was husky, his lips drawn and bloodless, his nails cut into his palms.

"Are you sure the man will die?" he asked.

"Sure. I would not encourage hopes to blast them."

"Do you think I can escape undiscovered? The provost-marshal has seen me frequently in my long stay here."

"Of course there is always danger of detection, but in the crowd you will run little risk. Brace up, man! If you fail it will make little difference. If you succeed you gain your freedom."

"You misunderstand my caution; I must know the danger to avoid it. What is the sick man's name?"

"Albans—William Henry Albans, private of the Tenth Arkansas Cavalry."

"You will keep me informed of his condition? I would not for my life take his place if he were able to go."

"If he should live he couldn't be moved for weeks. But he cannot live. I must use the strongest stimulants to keep breath in him till to-morrow night. Should he die sooner his death would be known and another convalescent substituted."

"I wish I knew how to thank you. Sometime, perhaps——"

His voice could not get beyond his throat.

"Hush! hush! No thanks. I may be doing wrong. God forgive me if I am!"

The day was Tuesday. From then till Thursday was a changing phantasmagoria. Hope alternated with despair. One moment the colonel set his chance of escape at zero; the next, the opportunity seemed providential and his faith rose accordingly.

True to his promise, the surgeon came as frequently as his duties permitted to report his patient's condition. He did not find it necessary to administer the stimulant till Wednesday noon. The man was then sinking rapidly, but shortly after, though he remained unconscious, his pulse grew stronger. At six o'clock little change. At eleven that night his respiration somewhat more labored, his pulse weakening. He might die at the turn of the night, but would probably last till morning.

The colonel tried to sleep, but could not. All night he was listening for the surgeon's footfall with the dread announcement. At six o'clock it came. The soldier was dead.

At nine that morning the prisoners for exchange were filing past the provost-marshal. There was little form. The officer sat at a table with the list of fortunate ones before him; as they passed and called their names he checked them off. All waited outside till the whole five hundred could be thus checked. Then, marching two abreast, they were to board the boat, which already had her gangplank thrown to shore.

Colonel Seddon was about midway the line. He had shaved his face clean, and, by the surgeon's direction, had rubbed ashes on it to give it the leaden-hued look of one recovering from a long illness. Furthermore he had so thrown his blanket around his head that its folds almost covered his forehead and the side of his face. Thus disguised his own dog would not have recognized him, yet he could not have been mortal and free from apprehension. Beads of perspiration stood on his forehead and rigors of dread coursed his spine.

The sixth man in front of him was through. The fifth. The fourth was asked a question or two in addition—he passed on. Third—second—last! A deep breath and he nerved himself.

"Your name?"

"William Henry Albans, Tenth Arkansas Cavalry."

The officer regarded him attentively, his expression puzzled. The colonel changed color—not so the ashes.

"I could swear I know your eyes."

"I have not been in the hospital nearly all the time since I came here. You have seen me frequently, I suppose."

"That accounts for it, probably."

Another piercing glance. "Next!"

The colonel was out under the broad sky. He filled his lungs with gulps of pure

air. He could have shouted. He was free! he was free! The joy of living surged through his veins. He was in love with life; it had never been so sweet to him before. Now he could go home. And then for the South again!

His riotous ecstasy had not subsided when the last man of the file had passed, the door of the prison-yard was thrown open, and the men by twos were entering heaven. Two companies of militia were on hand in case they should be needed, and sergeants stood on either side the plank to count the prisoners as they passed. One hundred — two — three — four — five — and two men were still outside!

The wildest confusion prevailed. The two in danger of returning to purgatory were remonstrating like maniacs. Colonel Seddon's heart ceased beating. He felt like a schoolboy who fears discovery of a grave misdemeanor, only a thousand times worse. It was not a time for calm reflection; he accused himself of being in some way responsible for the error. Yet no one would have suspected from looking at him the seething caldron within. His splendid dignity of carriage and firm lips lent an air of majesty even to his ghastly appearance. He looked the most composed man there and was the nearest desperation. He had resolved upon heroic renunciation when an officer announced:

"The order for exchange was five hundred. Five hundred and two are here ready to embark. No mistake has been made. Two men climbed over the wall — they could get out no other way. If they will step forward and give their names they will be permitted to go with the rest."

It was unheard-of clemency. The men feared a trick and would not commit themselves.

"Speak at once or every one of you will have to be rechecked. You cannot escape the second time, but if you are brave as shrewd, and will admit what we assert, we pledge you equal exchange with the five hundred."

Then the two acknowledged, their names were added to the roll, the other two passed in, the plank was withdrawn, the engines groaned, the wheel moved, the water foamed into spray, a triumphant shout burst from five hundred and two throats, and the boat glided away down the Mississippi.

They had proceeded but a short distance when a darky came threading his way among the groups on deck till he reached Colonel Seddon. Sobbing wildly he threw himself at the colonel's feet and clasped him round the ankles with a torrent of incoherent exclamations that seemed of appeal and delight intermingled. It was Pete.

"Why, Pete, what on earth are you doing here?" was the astonished master's greeting.

Before leaving Vicksburg on his hazardous enterprise he had enjoined Pete, in event he did not return and the city surrendered, to hurry home. In the one letter received from Edith during his imprisonment she had not mentioned the darky, but in the weightier matters which engrossed his thoughts the colonel gave this slight attention. And now here he was; his apparition could hardly have been more startling.

The colonel received no answer but sobs, so repeated his question, adding: "It does me good to see you. Stand up and tell me all that has happened since we parted."

Thus encouraged he rose. He was sadly altered. His huge muscles were wasted to half their size; his clothes hung on him with grotesque suggestiveness; a cough tore his lungs and choked him till he struggled for breath.

"My poor boy!" the colonel exclaimed in consternation. "This is frightful. How long have you been ill? What gave you this cough?"

"I 'low I ketched cold sleepin' on de groun'. I ain' nebber ben home."

"Never been home!"

"Oh, mahsteh, fur Gord's sake don' lay it up ergin me. I c'uldn' go w'en I don' know whe'r yo's dead er 'live. Pete wa'n' gwine leab he mahsteh t' stahve an' go home whah de pot's allus full."

His devotion would have melted a stone. His master could hardly speak. "How did you live all the time?"

"White folks gimme lots. An' I wucked —see heah!"

He fumbled in the bosom of his shirt, and untying the leather string which bound it to his garments brought forth a small, much-soiled bag, thrusting it into Colonel Seddon's hand.

"I ahned it all—I ahned it fur yo'. I neber spent nary cent ahteh I fin' out fur sho yo' wus in de pris'n."

"How did you get an idea I was here?"

"I axed ever'body I seed. Ahteh de s'render I stay at Vicksbu'g nigh two weeks, an' I p'intedly went roun' t' de auff'cers an' tol' 'em 'bout yo' an' axed 'em ef dey seed yo'. Dey 'low I wus plumb crazy t' spec t' fin' yo', but I don' keer fur no Yank's talk. I kep' on, an' fin'ly dey he'p me deysebs. Den w'en I wus 'bout t' gib up er man whut I hed pestered lots call me an' say, 'Boy, I's foun' whah yo' masteh be.' 'Fo' Gord, dat wus de hap'es' minute o' Pete's life. Den I come heah, an' wuck roun' de boats, he'pin' wid de wood an' de cho's. Eber time soljirs gits on de boat Pete do too, t' see ef yo' wus on. I 'mos' 'low dey ain' neber gwine let yo' free, an' I pray hahd. Las' night I kep' coughin' an' c'uldn' sleep an' pray mo'n eber. I tell de Lahd I ain' neber pestered 'im much wid axin' fur t'ings —sholy he ain' gwine t' 'fuse me dis favah."

The cough and failure to sleep were of more concern to the colonel than the prayer. "Do you suffer much? does the cough hurt you?" he asked.

"No, suh, not t' say zactly huht, but I's got er awful gone feelin' heah"—in his chest—"an' lately I's tahd all de time. I 'low pappy 'u'd say 'twus laz'ness."

"Your father will be too glad to see you to call names. Please God we'll reach home soon now, and you can have the shelter and food you need. You must take back the money you have earned, Pete. I couldn't—" He cut his sentence short. The boy's disappointment was pitiful. "We are apt to need it before we get home and I might lose it. You keep it right where you had it before and I will call on you as I want it."

Pete's face brightened, but he took back the bag as though it scorched him, till the colonel still further emphasized his appreciation by pretending to recollect that he was short of funds and asked for a dollar. After that the sympathy between them was complete. The servant's face shone with supreme content; all the day his eyes followed the master with a language louder than speech.

A furlough was secured, though the officer granting it declared the colonel could never get home—it was madness to try. For miles of the way every township was patrolled by militia and regulars. But he found a party of six others who would traverse nearly the same route, and, throwing discretion to the winds, they started North.

On the morning of their departure Pete came hurrying to his master in high spirits. On his arm he carried a Federal officer's coat, stripped of trimmings and nearly new. It was unusually dark in color and in its denuded condition hardly recognizable.

"Mahsteh, I wus 'shamed fur yo' t' go home wid dat ohnery ole coat yo's wahin', so I bought dis 'n' fur yo'."

The colonel smiled. "I am greatly obliged to you, Pete, but I can't wear it—it is a Federal uniform."

Pete was crestfallen. "Does yo' min' me keepin' it?" he asked presently.

"No, certainly not. Strap it between your saddle and horse-blanket."

Though it was early in November the first night out was warm, and the colonel's party conveniently dispensed with the fire they were afraid to have. But by the next night the mercury had fallen to bitter cold. Still they attempted to forego the cheer of a fire and lay shivering in their blankets. The colonel felt the frost most keenly because of his long confinement, and when, toward midnight, it began to snow, he found it insupportable. In this extremity Pete bethought him of the Federal coat, and his master, after slight hesitation, put it on over his own. With this protection he fell asleep, but the others, awaking half frozen, forgot their caution and built a huge fire.

As though in answer to their signal, early next morning they were surrounded by half a company of Union soldiers. Urged on by Colonel Seddon they fought like tigers to resist capture. But despite their valiant efforts, with two men down, two more slightly wounded, and Colonel Seddon himself shot through the left hand, they were forced to submit. The straits of all were desperate enough—the colonel's critical as a soldier could experience. It is remarkable that he was not shot on the spot. The next day he was relodged in prison on the charge of being a Confederate spy.

Before he parted from Pete he scribbled a note to Edith, briefly describing the circumstances of his freedom and recapture, and not attempting to conceal the jeopardy of his situation. He might not be alive when she received it, but he commanded Pete to hasten home and intrust the note to no one's hand but Edith's own.

Pete's speed was greater than the colonel's could possibly have been. On the third day Job ran excitedly to his mistress.

"Oh, Miss Edie, whut does yo' t'ink? Pete's come back. Uncle Isaac's out heah an' wan' t' see yo'."

Edith hurried out. "What news?" she cried. "Did Pete come from his master?"

The old man shook his head mournfully. "Yes, Miss Edie, de Provigul hab come home. He come frum mahsteh, but I cyan' mek not'n' out o' 'im. He come crawlin' in las' night 'mos' played out. Pete's awful sick."

"Sick!"

"Yas, Miss Edie, Pete's er-dyin'. I neber seed dat look on nobody's face whut deaf hedn' struck. He look 'mos' lack er shadew. 'Good Gord A'mighty!' says I w'en he come in."

"I shall go immediately to see him."

"Thanky, mahm—dat's whut he sen' me fur. Mahsteh sen' er note t' yo' an' Pete wouldn' eben lemme tote it ober. He try awful hard t' bring it hese'f, but 'twan' no use—he cyan' walk nary step dis mahnin'."

Edith found Pete in a room at the quarters, now deserted except for Uncle Isaac. He lay weak and still, his face of that peculiar ashy color a negro's skin assumes in extreme illness. Nevertheless he greeted her with a smile, and the ready tears filled her eyes at its pathos. Eager as she was to hear of Colonel Seddon she would have spent a few moments questioning him concerning himself if he had not forbidden it by thrusting the note into her hand.

At the first reading she wept aloud. At the second her pulse beat fast and slow by turns. At the third she rose from her chair.

"I can't delay a moment, Pete," she said. "Your master's life is in danger and must be saved."

"I wus de cause ob it all," he groaned. "Mahsteh w'uldn' er put on dat coat ef it hedn' ben fur me."

"You must not grieve," she answered gently. "He gives me an idea in this note of how faithful you have been. You shall tell me all about it to-morrow. I am going to send Job with a bed on the wagon to take you to our quarters, where you can have the attention you require."

He attempted to thank her, but, failing, covered his head with the bedclothes to smother his crying.

She went straight to Richard Allyn, feeling instinctively that he would be more fertile in resources and more powerful in influence than friends of her own side. She briefly ran over the details, then gave him the note. After reading it he sat for ten minutes in abstracted meditation.

"I shall telegraph influential friends of mine to have proceedings stayed. Then I must write to Max. Appeal will have to be made to the secretary of war, I think, and Max is the one to make it."

She crimsoned. "Where is he?" she timidly asked.

In all his years of absence, for the first time she revealed an interest concerning him.

"With the Army of the Potomac."

That was all, but it furnished food for a conversation between Mr. and Mrs. Allyn that night and carried a ray of hope to Max's heart when reported to him.

In half an hour telegrams were speeding

across the state. Before night the lawyer sent Edith an answer received from the commandant of the prison where the colonel was confined. He was still unsentenced, but could hardly escape execution.

CHAPTER XX.

THE LAST OF MRS. WIRE.

THE commandant at Jefferson was not sleeping on a bed of roses any more than the luckless objects of his hatred. Every sweet has its bitter, storm follows sunshine, wealth is bought with toil, honor is attended with difficulties. Captain Wire's handicap was due to the turbulence of his men. At first they had submitted to his dictation with soldierly obedience; but while the captain was busy with proscriptions, bone tax assessments, and similar matters, a spirit of lawlessness was flaunting itself at the fort. Sentries were careless and men nightly slipped into town to drink and carouse. Many midnights were made hideous by their bestial quarrels or more bestial good humor.

At last affairs grew desperate, and the commandant ordered the sentries to greater vigilance. Each morning the guard-house was full, though numbers were winked at and entered as they had gone out. The captain was not one to endure tamely such manifest violation of his discipline. He now issued a peremptory order for the guards to shoot dead any man who attempted to pass after nightfall, and to insure execution posted special guards whom he could trust.

For three nights quiet reigned in town and at the fort. Then the most restless spirits, scorning the tedium, prepared to disobey, and coaxed to join them an inoffensive fellow who had fallen under Wire's displeasure and had been refused permission to visit his sick wife. He lacked the wariness in eluding the sentries experience had taught the others, and was riddled with bullets.

His death raised a storm at the post and among the northern sympathizers of Jefferson. The wife proclaimed her husband's persecution from the housetop and found eager listeners. Men discussed the affair on the street with dark and ominous innuendos, while women congregated at their neighbors' houses to shiver with delicious horror at recital of the villainous deeds of the ogre at the fort.

For once Richard Allyn approved the captain's course. But he was too firmly convinced of his scoundrelism to interpose when an appeal was made to Federal authorities for Wire's displacement. Though in this instance guiltless, Allyn felt that a rogue and murderer would be but started toward his dues if Wire were stripped of his honors.

The effort proved futile. The officers sent to investigate the affair not only exonerated the commandant but complimented him for his determination to enforce law. Still complaint had been made. Acquittal would be more easily forgotten than the charge. The wedge had entered and the next accusation would drive it home.

Evidently the commandant did not hold this opinion. He laid about him with a heavy hand. Assisted by his wife, he discovered in one way and another the agitators for his removal and made each of them bleed for it. It was now Mrs. Wire's time to load the atmosphere with threats and innuendos and she was equal to the task. The only pleasing feature was that it afforded those who had hitherto been victims of her husband's animosity a breathing space. To them the fatal incident was like spring after winter or an oasis after the desert sands.

Thus passed the winter of '63–64 at Jefferson.

Late one evening of the following spring Richard Allyn was walking hurriedly along the street which skirted the hill whose top was crowned with the commandant's showy residence. Two cross streets that ascended the hill on either side intersected this at right angles. At one of the corners he met Lige, no longer a slave on the Dupey estate but a resident of Jefferson these six months and more.

"Good evening, Lige," was his saluta-

tion. "Where have you been? You look as though you had been seeing spooks."

Even in the waning light the negro's face was ghastly.

"Good ebe'in', Mahs Allyn. I's pow'ful glad t' see yo'. I ain' ben seein' spooks zackly, but I's kinder 'fr'ed Mahs Cap'n 'll be mekin' spooks outn me."

"Why so?"

"I's ben seein' whut I ain' got no business t'. Yo' knows I's ben plahstehin' out dah."

"No, I didn't know it. Why does the captain's new house need plastering?"

"'Twan' neber finish, he got so much room. So he sen' fur me t' plahsteh. I wus mos' feahed t' go, an' mo' feahed not t' go, so I's ben dah nigh er week. But ebert'ing wen' all right. Cap'n he ain' dah much, an' he wife—she ain' not'n but po' white trash ef she am got er fine house. But dey hab good eatin'—it seem mos' lack ole times."

"You have nearly forgotten your fright, haven't you?"

"No, sah, I ain' gwine furgit dat by Chris'mus. I's jes' splanifyin' why I was dah. I wucked late t'night t' git t'rough. Jes' 'fo' I leab I need some papeh, so I look roun' fuh some. I opens er do' t' ernuth'r room, an' it ain' got not'n' in 't 'cep' bahls o' papeh—leastways dey look dat way. I gadder up big ahmful an'—Gord A'mighty! what yo' s'pose dat bahl was filled wid?"

Allyn suspected, but would not forestall the announcement.

"I'm sure I cannot guess," he said.

"Money! I hope I may die ef dar wan' er whole bahl o' money, an' mebbe lots mo' bahls."

"Why didn't you look to see?"

"Good Lahd! Mahs Allyn, yo's jokin' sutny. Me stay in dat room! De flo' fa'r buhned meh feet. I jes' finish up de wuck in er jiffy an' skedaddled. Eber step comin' down de hill I 'lows t' meet de cap'n. I'd rudder meet de deb'l, 'c'ase ef he look me squah in de face wid dem fi'ry eyes he'll know right 'way whar I's ben."

"Listen, Lige, to what I say," Allyn said seriously. "If you breathe to another person what you have told me it may cost you your life."

The negro's eyes, which had resumed their normal appearance, again nearly burst from their sockets.

"I do not say this to frighten you but to make you careful. Captain Wire is not a man to hesitate at the trifle of killing a darky to shield himself. Go straight home, tie up your mouth if necessary, and you will suffer no harm."

"Mahs Allyn, fur de good Gord's sake, don' yo' tell 'im!"

"I will not—you can trust me."

But he did not delay a day in communicating with state Federal headquarters, though in no way implicating Lige. In consequence a few mornings later he and an officer were closeted in his office arranging their plan of procedure. Wire should be given a chance of righting himself with the government—on that Allyn insisted. Therefore the officer should go to the fort, examine the commandant's books, and pointedly demand any money in his keeping that belonged to the government. If the captain were not disposed to disgorge, they would go to his house and either authenticate or disprove Lige's story. But of its truth Allyn had no doubt, notwithstanding the unveracious reputation of the race.

As was expected, the commandant declared he had no money either of his own or the United States. Many avenues of disbursement kept him drained. He was in debt besides. His salary was insufficient to maintain the style befitting his position. So sincere he seemed that an officer of less experience would have been deceived.

The only recourse was to search the house, though this was the least relishable task the lawyer ever undertook. If he had not deemed it a cowardly part he would have refused positively to go.

When Mrs. Wire heard the sound of many feet on the porch she was aghast.

"Oh, Kansas!" she exclaimed, "ef Siley's bring'n' comp'ny he'll be madder 'n blazes at the dinner. He hates boiled dinners—he wants everything fried."

Circumstances had altered her little since we first made her acquaintance. She was still stringy, freckled, washed-out, and voluble. If possible these peculiarities were but aggravated since her improved fortune. She answered the rap in person. Allyn thought of his own wife and wished more than ever that he had not come.

"Good morning, madam," said the officer. "I am sorry to annoy you, but the captain's house is of special interest to us just now and we should like to look through."

"What fur? Air you intend'n' to search it?"

"I am sorry to say that is our purpose."

"I'd like to know why our house has got to be searched an' Siley cap'n o' the post too! You'll not go inter a single room till I send fur him."

"Yes, we will, and you will not send for your husband."

"Who are you to stop me? You must think you've changed places with Gen'ral Grant."

"I am here by order of state authorities to take charge of the money the commandant is stealing from the government." His anger was rising. "Lead on, Allyn."

"Humph! this impidence beats my day. 'Tain't true! There ain't a cent here but what b'longs t' Siley, an' pow'ful little o' that. You're at the bottom o' this," to Allyn. "I never had no use fur you, nur that stuck-up wife o' yores nuther. Oh, Kansas! I wish Siley wus here! Sech impidence in my born days I never see!"

She was following up the stairs, railing as she went. But her blistering tongue rather nerved the men to discovery.

They were now at the door of the room which, according to Lige, contained the treasure. It was locked.

"May I ask for the key?" The polite tone added fuel to the flame.

"You kin ask till your tongue drops out an' you won't git it."

"Then we must break the door open."

"Dear Lord! ef Siley wouldn't scatter you! You may call yoreselves Union, but you ain't! You're worse 'n Rebs!"

The room was empty except for the barrels, just as Lige had described it. The paper was hurriedly removed from the top of the nearest barrel, and paper was beneath—nothing more.

"Aha! what do you think now?" Mrs. Wire screamed.

"I think we will examine the others," was the confident reply, though the confidence was assumed.

The next barrel proved as unproductive as the first. The paper was emptied on the floor and carefully examined, but not so much as a single piece of money could they discover. The affair looked gloomy enough.

But if Mrs. Wire hoped the search would be discontinued she was disappointed. Four barrels remained. The third had a thin layer of paper on top and beneath money to the bottom. The searchers almost lost breath at sight of a barrelful of gold and silver and bank notes, even though they were looking to find it. The fourth and sixth were paper again, the fifth full of money. Two whole barrels of money had the commandant stored away against the famine which would succeed this time of plenty. At least one of the party could not repress a feeling of pity for the man who had blackened his soul in the effort to obtain this gold and must now lose it.

At the first discovery Mrs. Wire broke down and cried as loud as before she had raved. Richard Allyn always believed she was as ignorant of the barrels' contents as she claimed, and when one considers that the captain knew better than any one else his wife's inability to keep a secret, that view seems the probable one. At least the kindly-disposed will wish it true.

Her husband's humiliation was immediate, though given as little publicity as the offense permitted. Stripped of honors and accumulations, he was sent forth into the world as destitute as when the war began. He and his family went away, followed not by regret, but by the hope—false, after events showed—that they would remain away forever.

(To be concluded.)

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN ELECTIONEERING.

BY SYDNEY BROOKS.

A THOROUGH comparison between English and American campaign methods would have to cut deeply into the characteristics of the two countries and might be a contribution of some value to the perennial Anglo-American discussion. But in this article I propose to dwell on only some of the obvious and superficial differences, as they strike an Englishman who has had some experience of political work at home and can claim that in the presidential campaign of last year and the recent contest for the mayoralty of Greater New York he has weathered two typical American elections.

Of these differences the first and most glaring is that the actual voting for the presidential candidates takes place on the same day throughout the Union. That is one of those simple, symmetrical arrangements one expects from America. At an English parliamentary election it is usually three weeks or more before all the returns come in. London and the cities may cast their votes on one day, the boroughs a week afterward, and the counties still later on.

This system, like all the anomalies in the British Constitution, has one or two advantages we should be sorry to part with. It secures to property owners, under the custom of plural voting, an influence which is proportional to their stake in the country's welfare; and it gives a chance to a candidate who has been defeated in one constituency to stand for another. Thus an energetic Londoner may vote for his residence in the West End, may hurry off and vote again for his office in the city, may take a train and vote a third time for his country house in one of the shires, and a fourth time for his shooting-box in Scotland. And as in England a man need not necessarily represent only the town, borough, or county in which he was born and lives, but can be elected by any constituency that will have him, an eminent politician who has been turned down in one place can usually find a safe seat in another. At the last election, for instance, Sir William Harcourt was defeated at Derby, a constituency he had represented for over thirty years. Under the American system he would have been obliged to wait until the next regular election. Under the English he was immediately nominated for the county of West Monmouthshire—a Liberal candidate withdrawing in his favor — and was duly elected five or six days after his rebuff in the Midlands. Had no such arrangement been possible, had there been no back door by which Sir William could enter Parliament, his services would have been lost to the country for a considerable time, the Liberal opposition would have faced the government without a leader, and, as it happened, an important measure which was mainly defeated by his inspiring generalship would probably have become law.

On the other hand, the system of protracted polls spreads the excitement over a period of three weeks instead of concentrating it on one day, and, so far of course, disturbs the business of the country—though never to the extent of such general paralysis of commerce as afflicted America during the last presidential campaign. That paralysis, I am aware, was chiefly due to the nature of the questions that had to be decided, questions from which we in England have been happily free for the last fifty years; but even in those halcyon days, the coming of which is really believed in by some amiable Americans, when the tariff has ceased from troubling and the currency is at rest, and Democrats and Republicans are at their wits' end to find something to fight about, it is still probable that the quadrennial choice of a president will do more to unsettle trade in America than any general election in England. For, if it

takes you only ten or twelve hours to vote, it takes you apparently four months of steady electioneering to prepare for that performance; whereas while we spend three weeks in voting, we do only a little more than a fortnight's talking about it.

But if an English election does not greatly affect trade, it convulses and disintegrates society. And that to an American must be an amazing phenomenon. Presidents may come and go but Newport remains unruffled. The very republic itself may seem to be imperiled, but New York sleeps and dines and keeps its engagements as usual. The park is just as crowded, the theaters as full, society as busy, trips to Europe as common; and politics are quietly relegated to the politicians. It is an old and apparently a true charge against America that her "best people," her natural leaders, do not interest themselves actively in the affairs of their country. One reason for this, and the only one I care to discuss now, is that the planting of the national capital in a small, out-of-the-way town, remote from the commercial and intellectual centers, deprives public life of those social inducements that operate so strongly in France and England and make it virtually impossible for a man to look after his private affairs and his duties as congressman or senator at the same time.

Now, with us, politics and society are inextricably mingled. To the upper classes a seat in the House of Commons is an easy and pleasant support to their public position; and the successful tradesman and his wife find in it an introduction to fashionable life. The London season begins when Parliament commences its sittings and ends when Parliament rises. In 1895 a general election took place just when the season was at its height. A week after the writs were issued London was a desert, the Row empty, the clubs sepulchral vaults, and town houses put into the hands of the caretaker with seven caretakers worse than herself. Her ladyship, you were told, was away in the country "a-'elping of Sir John in his 'lection." So were her ladyship's daughters and "the young gen'lemen" and any friends she could lay hands on. And the next mail, of course, brought a letter from her ladyship: "Won't you come down and help the Cause?" and so down you went, to find your hostess and her womankind, whom you had last seen in a London drawing-room, now arguing with rustic laborers and flattering their wives and kissing their children and wheedling votes for Sir John with a skill that was almost diabolical.

All over the United Kingdom, in town and country, the same insinuating arts were being practiced, and for a whole delirious fortnight or more the British workingman had the aristocracy of the country at his feet, a humble suppliant for his favors. A country house during election time is not a place to be lightly entered by the *flâneur* of Piccadilly. The innocent visitor who bites his cake and tries to talk about the theaters or the latest book is gorgonized from head to foot with "a stony British stare." To hear your hostess' daughter fulminate against disestablishment and "that Gladstone" you would imagine that she had never heard of Henley or Goodwood or condescended to anything so trivial as a theater or a tennis racket. And a similar sacrifice is demanded of you, on pain of immediate expulsion. Guns and fishing-rods are put away, a morning canter voted flat heresy, the billiard-room locked till the last canvasser has returned, and life resolves itself into a long political debate.

This active electioneering by society women is quite unknown, I believe, in America. Even in England it is altogether a creation of our own time. For the past two hundred years English women have been trained in intrigue and diplomacy, and the history of the reigns of William of Orange, of Anne, of the four Georges, and of the last William is full of delicious stories of petticoat campaigns conducted with a dashing unscrupulousness far removed from the squalid tactics of modern electioneering. In those days women sought to influence not the voters—for they hardly counted—but the statesmen themselves. In their *salons* the fortune of many a ministry was decided and the party's attitude toward many a fateful measure mapped out.

There was the rebellious Sarah, Duchess of Marlborough, there were Georgiana Spencer and the fascinating Mrs. Crewe, there were Fox's "canvassing duchesses." Later still, and within the memory of men now living, there was Lady Holland, the friend and counselor of the Whigs, the brilliant hostess who gathered round her all that was eminent in politics and literature in the early years of the century. At Gore House her rival, Lady Blessington, the loveliest woman of her day, held a rather more Bohemian and artistic court, with Disraeli and Bulwer Lytton among her protégés. Lady Blessington was the last, or all but the last, of her line. The political *salon* lingered on as a gracious influence in society a few years longer; but it died with the transference of power to the middle and then to the working classes.

The wives of prominent statesmen nowadays are content to feed men instead of leading them. Their talent for statecraft expends itself in canvassing among voters, not in influencing members of Parliament; in sitting on the platform from which their husbands are mystifying their constituents, instead of being a power among the men who make English history. The modern woman exercises a sort of collective influence by joining the Primrose League or the Woman's Liberal Federation, or making speeches about woman's suffrage; but the personal distinction, the independence, the fascination, the thousand social arts that belonged to Madame Récamier and "La Reine Zarah" are now lost to English politics. No woman seems to have the strength or ability to get into direct communication with statesmen and found a *salon* of her own. She has left the House of Commons and given herself up to the polling booth.

It must be borne in mind that in England we have no primaries, no enrolments, no nominating conventions. Practically we have no party organization. Fifty or sixty years ago it was realized in America that discipline and cohesion meant power. It will be a momentous, if not a fortunate, day for England when the same discovery is made there. The two great English parties have of course offices in London with branch associations throughout the country; but these associations exist chiefly for the sake of canvassing, diffusing literature, holding meetings, looking after the defective registration system. They do not control the party or formulate programs, or even, in every case, choose the candidate. Consequently they have not one hundredth of the power that belongs to your Republican and Democratic organizations.

The Americans have taken hold of the party machine just as they have taken hold of railroad traveling and telephones and football and whist and the other necessities of life, and developed it, extended it, fashioned it with such care and ingenuity into a practically perfect piece of mechanism that an Englishman, observing its complexity and firmness, begins to wonder what sort of an infantile country he hails from. Our electioneering methods, though they suit us very well, appear simply childish by its side. Let us suppose that the Birmingham Liberal Association, for instance, is anxious to secure a candidate to contest one of the parliamentary divisions of the city. The members of the committee, most of them solid business men who are in politics "for their health," and who neither ask for nor desire any reward, meet to discuss the situation. If it happens that any local Liberal of prominence and good standing is available, an invitation is sent to him to stand for the constituency. If not, a conference is held with the central association in London, on whose books are the names of most of the aspiring Liberals in the country. The candidate arrives in Birmingham and issues his address to the electors. Here, again, one notices a contrast with the cast-iron rigidity of the American system. A candidate for Congress or a state governorship is supposed to have no private opinions whatever. He is put forward as the party's representative and has to swallow the party's program, whether he likes it or not. An English candidate is not called upon to sacrifice so much to his country's welfare. He is allowed a certain latitude of independence.

Our Birmingham candidate, for instance, knows, of course, what are the main tenets of the Liberal faith; but he need not necessarily subscribe to all its articles. With the gregarious instinct of politicians, the odds are that he will not differ from them on any material point. But he may, and still be the party candidate. He makes his own little platform and runs on it to suit himself. He publishes it in the newspapers and expounds it at a mass-meeting. Then he hires a few rooms in the center of his constituency and converts them into campaign headquarters. The actual work of electioneering has begun.

But who is to do it? Not the candidate, for his whole time is spent in conferences and speechmaking. Not a vast army of ward heelers and district captains such as you have in America, for statesmen of that type have not yet arisen in England. Obviously it must be done by amateurs, by men and women who go into the work for the fun of it, or, and I think more generally, from an honest devotion to the cause. And so, within twenty-four hours after the campaign is opened, you will find the central committee-room crowded with eager volunteers. The friends of the candidate, the wives and daughters of the leading Liberals in the district, university undergraduates home on vacation, business men with an odd afternoon to spare, troop down to offer their services.

Day after day you will see ladies of refinement and social position sitting from ten to four in the midst of the bustling disorder, addressing wrappers, mailing circulars, doing the clerical work of the campaign. Sometimes they sally forth with canvassing cards to beard the intelligent electorate in its den. Each registered voter whose name appears upon their card is called upon, is cross-examined, is argued with, is often persuaded; this, too, in districts whose inhabitants do not always conduct arguments by word of mouth alone. To a Conservative this fair canvasser will dilate on the virtues of Mr. Gladstone and Lord Rosebery and leave him with a batch of Radical leaflets, promising to call again. A confirmed Liberal she will greet with holy joy, ask after his wife and children, and decorate his parlor window with a portrait of their beloved candidate. The wretched being who has not made up his mind how to vote can have no peace till he has given her a decisive answer. She will visit him, plead with him, harangue him, appeal to him, till the poor fellow has to yield to get rid of her and back to his work. In the evenings she will sit on the platform by her candidate's side, perhaps make a little speech, and on election day she will send her horses and carriages to drive honest Bill from his factory or workshop to the polling booth and back. I have yet to meet political workers who equal English women in enthusiasm, persistence, and individual effectiveness.

It may be owing to these humanizing influences that English politics are handled, as Americans say, "with kid gloves." And though party spirit and class antagonisms are more bitter there than here, it is true that an English public man has less to fear from the recklessness and unscrupulousness of his opponents. But go to political meetings in England and you will witness scenes of turbulence and disorder such as would be impossible in America. A speaker here is clothed with more than regal authority. No one thinks of interrupting or arguing with him or disputing any of his statements. Long-winded and uninspiring or pointed and effective, it is all the same. The audience sits and listens, applauds whenever it sees a chance, at no time shows a trace of impatience or boredom. The man who dares to interrupt is pounced upon by policemen and bustled out of the hall, as an offense to order and good manners.

One or two obvious reasons may serve to explain this uncomplaining deference. For one thing, a Democrat attends only those meetings where he can be sure of hearing the Republicans soundly abused. He does not require any arguments to confirm him in his political convictions. What he is on the lookout for is a speaker that takes those convictions for granted and can lash them into enthusiasms. Therefore he gives Re-

publican gatherings the go-by and keeps solely to the meetings of his own party. For another thing, Americans are brought up to believe in the divine right of the majority to have things all their own way, a sound political maxim when it stops short of producing a spirit of fatalism and a sense of hopelessness as well as helplessness in the minority. And, thirdly, America is the land of the commonplace. By this I mean that if you compare fifty average American mechanics with fifty average English mechanics you will find them better educated, more intelligent, more alert and quicker-witted, but at the same time more uniform and less individual. They seem to have been built on the same model, to have been educated up to the same level, and there to have stopped. To question one is to learn the views, the mental outlook, the instinctive ways of looking at things of them all. They resemble one another as one western village resembles its fellow. Now the British workingman may not be a particularly clever gentleman, but he fairly bristles with peculiarities. Education has not wiped away his characteristics or his prejudices. He still has opinions of his own and can still find something original to say for himself. Nor does he forget to say it. It gives him especial pleasure to state his views at a meeting of his political opponents. He will organize an opposition meeting in the middle of the hall and proceed to address it himself. Or he may confine his attention to the speech of the evening and cast humorous doubts upon its author's political information.

I have known a meeting thrown into utter confusion because a speaker happened to mention the year 1784 and a workingman insisted on knowing, before they went any further, who was king of England at that time. The speaker, a trifle uncertain himself as to whether it was George III. or George IV., refused to answer, and the workingman's thirst for knowledge had to remain unquenched—unless the policeman who cast him forth was able to satisfy it.

In England these interruptions are taken as matters of course. A speaker expects to find a fair sprinkling of opponents among his audience, and the consciousness of their presence makes him more careful in what he says, more precise and argumentative than if he were addressing a purely partisan gathering. Indeed it is probable that the exuberance and extravagant rhetoric of the ordinary American speaker, as well as his theatrical declamation, are chiefly to be ascribed to the persistent friendliness of his audiences. It is not good for oratorical style that orators should go unchallenged. There was a speaker at a Democratic convention last year who lifted up both hands to the portrait of his candidate and apostrophized him thus: "Oh, William Jennings Bryan!" An English audience would simply have laughed; but at Buffalo it was considered very effective. The man who faces a meeting at home can always be certain of the measure of his success or failure. No English audience will stand a speaker who bores them. If he fails to prove attractive he is informed of the fact with a singular absence of bashfulness. It is not a good advertisement for our national manners, but it keeps a meeting lively and puts an effective check on pompous dullards. Some kind of sport we must have, even in our politics. In the good old days dead cats and rotten eggs used to come flying like bewildering meteors round a candidate's head. Now he is "heckled" and pelted with questions instead. Any man in the audience is allowed to catechize him on every article of his political faith, to inquire into his votes in the House of Commons, and to ask him how he stands with regard to particular measures. And by the custom of the country the candidate is bound to answer all reasonable questions fully and definitely.

Outside of meetings and canvassing, there is not much electioneering work to be done. The managers of a campaign in England are not pestered with interviewers as they are here. The press, indeed, confines itself mainly to reporting speeches and writing editorials. I cannot for the life of me see what good is done or what votes are

gained by the incessant babble of the wire-pullers in an American election. They all say precisely the same thing. They all accuse their opponents of bribery and corruption and prophesy "landslides" for their own party. The influence of a monster parade is easy to understand; but the chatter, chatter, chatter of the chairman of one organization and the rejoinders of the chairman of another organization, and the replies, counterblasts, retorts, recriminations, challenges, and forecasts of the lieutenants on both sides seem to an outsider to be merely a generous waste of breath. So, too, with the straw votes and election bets. Do they impose on any one in this shrewd and cynical land? Are voters really won over and issues decided by these petty tricks, any more than by the tin horns so zealously and gravely tooted by old and young on election night? The wise critic would not answer off-hand, for Americans are the supreme political organizers of the world, and if in their elections they make a point of appealing to the five senses of the electorate, instead of to its intelligence, they probably have their reasons for doing so.

A LITERARY BIOGRAPHY.

BY EUGENE PARSONS.

THE new "Memoir" of Tennyson is preeminently a literary biography, describing the beginning and growth of the works on which his fame rests. Especially interesting is the genesis of "In Memoriam," "Maud," and "Idylls of the King." In the beautiful parable-poem of "Merlin and The Gleam" the late laureate himself gave a poetical sketch of his own career, and now the son has furnished a prose version of this exquisite lyric in the preface of his admirable biography. In the body of the work are innumerable details concerning the composition of his father's longer productions.

Much might be said of Tennyson's wide range of reading and of his thorough self-culture. But few poets ever had such ample and varied stores of knowledge, and all contributed to his literary development. His friends, too, were enlisted into his service, not only to hear his unpublished writings and suggest improvements, but to think up themes for new poems. His methods and habits of working were peculiar. While not such a swift improviser as Shelley or Byron, he had considerable rhythmical facility. But, owing to his passion for perfection of form, his works were not marred by their too frequent verbal defects. He was oftentimes visited by moods of genuine inspiration, when his spontaneous utterances were highly felicitous. Verse-writing was not always easy for him, but it was not generally such a labored performance as with Gray. It usually took him a long while to "see his subject," to sound its depths and realize its scope. After patient brooding, it may be for months or years, his poems suddenly took shape in his mind and were rapidly written. They were the ripened fruit of his best thought and experience. Only a line or two might be composed at first, and the rest years later. Stanzas of lyrics and passages of blank verse came to him and were sung to himself or chanted aloud while on his walks. Afterward they were written down. He could not grind things out like Trollope. The poetic mood usually came during his morning smoke or after dinner. "I take my pipe," he once wrote, "and the muse descends in a fume."

Tennyson's art is studied, but it was not always conscious. The consummate grace and finish of his poetry cost him a world of trouble in the beginning of his literary apprenticeship. Long practice made elegance easy. Judging from the polished style of his "Idylls of the King," the reader gets the impression of toilsome revision, but according to his son Hallam they were not all "carefully elaborated."

The more imaginative the poem, the less time it generally took him to compose. "Guinevere" and "Elaine" were certainly not elaborated, seeing that they were written, each of them, in a few weeks, and hardly corrected at all. My father said that he often did not know why some passages were thought specially beautiful, until he had examined them. He added: "Perfection in art is perhaps more sudden sometimes than we think; but then the long preparation for it, that unseen germination, *that* is what we ignore and forget."

Herein is the secret of Tennyson's artistic superiority over the earlier poets of the century, and indeed all of his contemporaries except Matthew Arnold, and he understood better the art of omitting the superfluous. Aubrey de Vere thus speaks of his willingness to sacrifice fine lines:

"An anecdote will illustrate his solicitude on the subject of poetic form, the importance of which was perhaps not as much appreciated by any other writer since the days of Greek poetry. One night, after he had been reading aloud several of his poems, all of them short, he passed one of them to me and said: 'What is the matter with that poem?' I read it and answered, 'I see nothing to complain of.' He laid his fingers on two stanzas of it, the third and fifth, and said, 'Read it again.' After doing so I said, 'It has now more completeness and totality about it; but the two stanzas you cover are among its best.' 'No matter,' he rejoined, 'they make the poem too long-backed; and they must go, at any sacrifice.' 'Every short poem,' he remarked, 'should have a definite shape, like the curve, sometimes a single, sometimes a double one, assumed by a severed tress or the rind of an apple when flung on the floor.'"

The manuscript of Tennyson's first book, "Poems, Chiefly Lyrical," was lost, but the poems were all reproduced from memory, so deeply were they impressed on his mind.

My father's poems were generally based on some single phrase, like "Some one had blundered," and were rolled about, so to speak, in his head, before he wrote them down; and hence they did not easily slip from his memory.

These words, we are told, were the keynote of "The Charge of the Light Brigade."

Chapters IV.–VIII. of Vol. I. contain a mass of information concerning Tennyson's early manhood and his intellectual occupations after leaving Cambridge. During these years he was never idle, in the ordinary sense of the word. The letters of the poet and his friends frequently refer to the poems published in the 1842 volumes. This was a productive period, for many pieces besides these were written and then burnt or thrown aside. "'The Brook' in later years was actually rescued from the waste-paper heap." There were many poems composed, but, not being put down on paper, were forgotten. Some of the phrases and fancies, we may suppose, did not wholly vanish from his mind and reappeared in works of after years. The three political poems "You ask me why, tho' ill at ease," "Of old sat Freedom on the heights," and "Love thou thy land" were written in 1833. The conclusion of "The May Queen," "The Blackbird," and "The Two Voices" belong to the same year. "Break, break," was probably composed in the spring of 1834 and "The Sleeping Beauty" a little later. "Morte d'Arthur," "Sir Galahad," and "St. Agnes" were mentioned in correspondence of this year. In 1835 Edward Fitzgerald heard Alfred read "The Day-Dream," "The Lord of Burleigh," "Dora," and other things in the 1842 volumes. "Edwin Morris" was written in Wales in 1839. While waiting for the train at Coventry in 1840 he shaped the ancient legend of Godiva into an exquisite idyl. The exact dates of "The Talking Oak," "St. Simeon Stylites," "Will Waterproof," etc., are not known.

"'Ulysses,'" my father said, "was written soon after Arthur Hallam's death, and gave my feeling about the need of going forward and braving the struggle of life perhaps more simply than anything in 'In Memoriam.'"

There are some interesting comments on "Locksley Hall":

In "Locksley Hall" my father annotates the line

Let the great world spin forever down the ringing grooves of change.

"When I went by the first train from Liverpool to Manchester (1830), I thought that the wheels ran in a groove. It was a black night and there was such a vast crowd round the train at the station that we could not see the wheels. Then I made this line." Further: "'Locksley Hall' is an imaginary place (though the coast is Lincolnshire) and the hero is imaginary. The whole poem represents young life, its good side, its deficiencies, and its yearnings. Mr Hallam said to me that the English people liked verse in trochaics, so I wrote

the poem in this meter." . . . I remember my father saying that Sir William Jones' prose translation of the "Moallakát," the seven Arabic poems (which are a selection from pre-Mahommedan poets) hanging up in the temple of Mecca, gave him the idea of the poem.

While at Eastbourne in the summer of 1845 Tennyson was engaged on "The Princess," but the poem was mostly written in London. "Come down, O maid, from yonder mountain height" was composed while on a tour among the Alps in 1846 and was "descriptive of the waste Alpine heights and gorges, and of the sweet, rich valleys below." The poet told Aubrey de Vere that the "Bugle Song" was written at Killarney, and "O Swallow, Swallow," was first composed in rime. Concerning one of his most characteristic and successful strains, that wonderful "blank-verse lyric," "Tears, idle tears," he said:

"The passion of the past, the abiding in the transient, was expressed in 'Tears, idle tears,' which was written in the yellowing autumn-tide at Tintern Abbey, full for me of its bygone memories."

In the manuscript the first line originally stood:

Ah foolish tears, I know not what they mean.

The hand of the artist made a happy change to "Tears, idle tears."

The subject of "The Princess," my father believed, was original, and certainly the story is full of original incident, humor, and fancy.

A significant remark is that of the author:

"The child is the link through the parts, as shown in the songs, which are the best interpreters of the poem."

A number of alterations, additions, and omissions were made in the second, third, and fourth editions.

Lovers of "In Memoriam" are indebted to this new "Memoir" for many biographical and bibliographical details concerning this monumental poem, Chapters IV. and XIV. of Vol. I. being especially valuable. On page 107 are some lines, hitherto unpublished, "which proved to be the germ of 'In Memoriam.'" They were written early in the winter of 1833–34, a few months after the death of Arthur Henry Hallam. Cantos IX., XXX., XXXI., LXXV., and XXVIII. were the first written sections, evidently jotted down in December, 1833. These manuscript poems circulated among his friends and were much admired. Professor Lushington, who was with the Tennysons at Boxley during the holidays of 1841, writes that "the number of memorial poems had rapidly increased" in the autumn of that year. In the summer of 1845 he visited the poet, who showed him the epithalamium celebrating the marriage of the professor and Cecilia Tennyson in 1842. In November, 1845, Tennyson wrote to Moxon:

"I want you to get me a book which I see advertised in the *Examiner;* it seems to contain many speculations with which I have been familiar for years, and on which I have written more than one poem. The book is called 'Vestiges of the Natural History of Creation.'"

Commenting on this the son says:

The sections of "In Memoriam" about evolution had been read by his friends some years before the publication of the "Vestiges of Creation" in 1844.

In 1891 the laureate explained the allusions in the first stanza,

I held it truth, with him who sings
To one clear harp with divers tones,

as referring to Goethe, whom he "placed foremost among the moderns as a lyrical poet," because "consummate in so many different styles."

It was not until 1848 that the poet made up his mind to print the "Elegies," as he called the sections of "In Memoriam." "Fragments of an Elegy" he thought of entitling it, and sometimes called it "The Way of the Soul." Three sections (printed in Vol. I., pp. 306–7) were omitted as redundant. Canto LIX. was inserted in 1851, and XXXIX. in 1869. The first Christmas Eve, mentioned in Canto XXVIII., was December 25, 1833; the second in 1834, and the one referred to in CV. was in 1837. The date of CVI. would likely be about December 31, 1837, and CXV. would describe the spring of 1838. Section XCVIII. was suggested by the wedding trip of Charles Tennyson Turner in the summer of 1836. The anniversary of Hallam's death, September 15, 1833, is spoken of in Cantos LXXII. and XCIX., and his

birthday is remembered in CVII. (February 1, 1838). The dates of some other sections may be conjectured, but not with certainty. As to the meter of "In Memoriam," the poet's statement is explicit. He knew nothing then of the verses of Ben Jonson and Lord Herbert of Cherbury in this kind of stanza, and supposed himself to be the originator of it.

The lines "O that 'twere possible," written in 1834 and printed in the *Keepsake* (1837), afterward became the foundation of "Maud." As the poet wrote:

"Sir John Simeon years after begged me to weave a story round this poem and so 'Maud' came into being."

It was thus written backward, the work being chiefly done in 1854 and 1855. The title then was "Maud, or The Madness." "This poem is a little 'Hamlet,'" remarked the laureate. The lyrics in it which he liked best were "I have led her home," "Courage, poor heart of stone," and "O that 'twere possible." He was vexed at the hostile reception of the poem on the part of the critics, and was grateful for the defense of Dr. Mann and the fine commentary of Brimley. With the proceeds of the sale of "Maud" Farringford was bought in 1856.

About the time of the publication of "The Holy Grail" (1869) Tennyson said:

"At twenty-four I meant to write an epic or a drama of King Arthur; and I thought that I should take twenty years about the work. Now they will say I have been forty years about it."

The "Morte d'Arthur" of the 1842 volumes was a fragment of the proposed epic. The earliest of his Arthurian poems was "The Lady of Shalott" ("another version of the story of Lancelot and Elaine"). The poet was familiar with the history of Arthur.

On Malory, and later, on Lady Charlotte Guest's translation of the "Mabinogion," and on his own imagination, my father said that he chiefly founded his epic; he has made the old legends his own, restored the idealism, and infused into them a spirit of modern thought and an ethical significance, setting his characters in a rich and varied landscape; as indeed otherwise these archaic stories would not have appealed to the modern world at large.

Not much progress was made in the epic for many years, probably because of Hallam's death and other circumstances. After "The Princess," "In Memoriam," and "Maud" were off his hands, he resumed work on the subject and wrote "Vivien" and "Enid" in 1856. In the summer of 1857 these two were privately printed with the title "Enid and Nimue, or The True and the False." There is an interesting record in Mrs. Tennyson's journal of this year:

"A. has brought me as a birthday present the first two lines that he has made of 'Guinevere,' which might be the nucleus of a great poem. Arthur is parting from Guinevere and says:

> But hither shall I never come again,
> Never lie by thy side; see thee no more:
> Farewell!"

In the winter of 1858 "Guinevere" was completed. Then "Elaine" was written, and in 1859 "Idylls of the King" appeared, including these four Arthurian stories. The preparation for other "Idylls" was begun, but was interrupted for several years. He was urged to write on the Sangreal, but was not "in the mood for it." "The Holy Grail" was written in 1868; it "came suddenly, as if by a breath of inspiration." It was published in 1869, along with "The Coming of Arthur," "Pelleas and Ettarre," and "The Passing of Arthur." In the next three years two more "Idylls" were added—"The Last Tournament" and "Gareth and Lynette," published in 1872. Soon after, "Balin and Balan" was written, though not published until 1885.

"The vision of Arthur as I have drawn him," my father said, "had come upon me when, little more than a boy, I first lighted upon Malory." And it dwelt with him to the end; and we may perhaps say that now the completed poem, regarded as a whole, gives his innermost being more fully, though not more truly, than "In Memoriam."

There is no falling off of interest in the second volume, which deals chiefly with "Enoch Arden," the dramas, and the later lyrics. Not only has the present Lord Tennyson faithfully and lovingly performed a duty to the memory of his distinguished father—he has placed the reading world under obligation to him for this masterly memoir. Herein lovers of Tennyson in ages to come can find out how he lived and wrote his immortal poems.

WOMAN'S COUNCIL TABLE.

A BUFF AND BLUE SLIPPER.

BY SUSAN ARCHER WEISS.

ON the 9th of May, 1779, the old borough-town of Norfolk was in possession of the British. During the night a fleet of one hundred vessels under Sir John Collier had come up from Hampton Roads and bombarded the forts below the town, compelling their slender force to abandon them and retreat to the Dismal Swamp, that natural fastness which the enemy had never yet ventured to assail. Then the foreign troops, British and Hessians, were landed, and proceeded to destroy the naval and military stores and to burn the residences of the citizens, excepting those of the Loyalists, who hastened to welcome the invaders and throw open their doors for their reception.

Among the most conspicuous of these Tory citizens was "Paul Habersham, gentleman," as his name is set forth in the old town records. In his house on Burmuda Street the British general Clinton, with the officers of his staff, was quartered; and here they proposed to celebrate their possession of the town by an impromptu ball, to which all the ladies of Norfolk were invited, though only those of the Loyalist families presented themselves.

Of these fair ones the fairest in the opinion of many was Mistress Dorothy Habersham, the young daughter of the host. Tall she was, and lithe and graceful, with clear creamy complexion and dark eyes which, whether they laughed or looked pensive, equally charmed the beholder. Hitherto she had scarce been seen by her father's foreign guests; for in those days young maidens were brought up to be shy of strangers of the other sex, and Dorothy knew what was due to herself and her position.

"By my faith," said Sir Henry Clinton, as he stood looking on at the dancers, "it is shame that all these fair maidens should be, as seemeth to me, disaffected to the king's government, though their fathers be loyal. In what manner is it to be accounted for, Master Calvert?"

"Nothing plainer, general," responded the citizen addressed. "Nearly all the younger men, even the sons of Loyalists, are on the side of the colonists; and what can you expect but that the ladies—the unmarried ones—should espouse the same cause? With women it is not a question of loyalty to king or government, but to love and lovers."

"Yea, that reminds me. If all the youth be so gallant and comely as this young major whom we hold prisoner above stairs, there is small room for wonder that they are able to win the ladies to their cause. Captain Leslie tells me that he recognizes this young man as the lieutenant who fought so desperately at High Bridge, where our troops were defeated some two years agone."

"The same, general; Lieutenant, now Major, Sevier. I would that he were on our side, for a braver and more honorable gentleman doth not exist, and I say this knowing him from a boy. Take my word for it, general, I could find it in my heart to be sorry that his happening to be at home for a single night should have betrayed him into being taken prisoner; though but for his absence, he being in command of the fort below, the garrison might not so speedily have retreated. I heartily trust he may be leniently dealt with."

To this the general made some indirect reply; but a few moments afterward he addressed in a low tone a handsome young officer standing near:

"I would warn you, Captain Leslie, to

keep strict ward over your prisoner this night. There be those whom I mistrust me would gladly effect his escape."

"There is no danger, general. With a picked guard and none admitted above stairs or suffered to pass the guard on any pretext, we may feel well assured of the prisoner's safety. Trust me, general."

Sir Henry passed on and the captain made his way through the crowded rooms to where, a little retired behind her mother, stood the fair daughter of the house. Having paid his respects to the former, he bowed with courtly grace to the younger lady.

"It is a great happiness to me, fair Mistress Dorothy," he said, "to be permitted to pay my compliments. Hitherto you have been chary of your presence, and perchance looked upon us as troublesome intruders in your home. But surely upon this occasion I may be allowed the honor of soliciting your hand for the coming cotillion."

She curtsied low, with the formal and dignified ceremony of the times, and gave the tips of her fingers as he led her to a place, and waited for the music to commence. Yet despite this constrained conventionality, there was a laughing light in her eyes and a touch of girlish coquetry in her manner as she addressed him:

"I cannot but feel flattered, Captain Leslie, at being noticed by one of His Majesty's most gallant officers, as they tell me you are. One, too, who has had the honor of being the chosen partner of the princess royal of England."

He smiled as he answered:

"Her Royal Highness, the princess, was some ten years lacking of the age of discretion when she so honored me, and the occasion was a simple hay-dance at Frogmore —else I might not have been so favored. But i' faith, if beauty and grace confer the true royalty, as the poets aver, then need we not to seek them within the walls of a palace." And the gallant captain bowed.

A blush just tinged her cheek, but she answered with a touch of archness:

"You have learned this pretty trick of compliment among the titled ladies of England. I fear me it will be somewhat misprized among us plain colonial folk."

"The colonial folk, fair mistress, should surely hold themselves accustomed to what is in use among their kinspeople, His Majesty's subjects across the sea. And I am assured in my own mind that our king can claim no fairer or more loyal subject than Mistress Dorothy Habersham."

"I am an obedient daughter, Captain Leslie, and have been brought up according to my parents' principles of strict loyalty to the king. And by this I am reminded to inquire, if I may, what will you do with the officer, Major Sevier, whom you hold prisoner in this house?"

"I' faith, I cannot answer upon my own knowledge, seeing that it will rest with the general what disposition be made of him. There is some whisper of his having resorted hither as a spy when the approach of our fleet was discovered; else surely he might have escaped in time."

"It is not true," the girl said impulsively —"it is not true that he was here as a spy. It was yester eve, before the sun had set, that he came in from the fort, as I can myself—nay, there is no lack of witnesses to prove that it was before the approach of His Majesty's fleet was known."

"For myself, I will take your word for it, Mistress Dorothy," he replied with pleasant courtesy. "But may I presume," he added, with a sudden expression of interest, "to inquire if this Major Sevier be a friend of yours, that you thus defend him?"

"Nay, captain, your people call him a rebel and a traitor, and none who deserve such reproach can be chosen friends of mine. But there is the music at last," she added, with an expression of relief.

Then the two partners turned toward each other and made severally a low bow and a deep curtsy, as a preliminary to the dance.

Dancing was not in those days what it is now—either a listless saunter or a wild whirl of couples in familiar and unseemly embrace. Mistress Dorothy was the most dignified as well as the most graceful

of dancers, and she tripped lightly to the stately measure, while well holding back the skirts of her white muslin dress. Thus all could see and admire the dainty little feet, encased in buff-colored satin slippers adorned with rosettes of light blue ribbon, in whose centers glittered gold buckles.

"You wear the rebel colors, Mistress Dorothy," said a bluff, distinguished-looking officer, past middle age, addressing her as the dance ended. "I trust it is not from choice. One so young and fair should be true to the loyal colors."

"Of a truth, it is not with me a matter of choice, Colonel Forseyth," she returned smilingly. "The slippers are a remembrance from a kinswoman of mine in Philadelphia, to whom they came from your own England; and surely I may be permitted to wear them for her sake."

"A fair plea, young mistress," he replied, with a grim smile. "Were it otherwise, or had I reason to suspect you of partiality to those rebel colors, do you know what I should consider my bounden duty? Why, even to confiscate one of those Cinderella slippers as a treasonable token; and then you could not wear the other."

"And what would you do with the slipper, colonel?" she asked archly.

"Faith, were I not a married benedict, as Shakespeare hath it, I might e'en be tempted to keep it as a memento of its fair owner. But having at home a buxom dame of my own, who might be curious about such a token, I should perchance be constrained to bestow it upon one by whom it would be worthily prized. What say you, Captain Leslie?" he added, turning with grim humor to his subordinate officer.

"In that case, colonel, gold could not purchase it from me," was the gallant reply. But playfully as the words were spoken, there was in the young officer's eyes a look of unmistakable admiration which again brought a blush to Dorothy's cheek. She drew herself up with dignity, and said with a touch of pride:

"If ever, Colonel Forseyth, you can discover me disloyal to the king's cause, then shall you be welcome to the slipper."

And the colonel laughed and stepped aside to make room for another scarlet-coated applicant for her hand in the dance.

An hour later Dorothy Habersham slipped away from the crowded ballroom and proceeded with hasty steps to the family apartments in the rear of the house. From a row of hooks in the housekeeper's closet she took a key, a duplicate of that held by Captain Leslie, belonging to the apartment in which Major Sevier was confined. This was a sort of square turret on the roof of the house, known as "the lookout." Dorothy knew it well, for it had ever been a favorite haunt of hers, where on pleasant days she read or dreamed, while the fresh sea-breeze came drifting across the salt marshes, and she could catch in the distance the sound of the surf upon the shore.

The Habersham house was a typical residence of a wealthy Virginia gentleman of that day, a plain but ample two-story building with its broad gable facing the street. Along the whole length of this gable on the lower floor extended a broad corridor or hall, communicating by a wide staircase at one end with a similar hall above, on which opened the doors of the apartments now occupied by the British officers. At the farther end of the upper hall was visible the foot of a steep and narrow stairway ascending to the lookout on the roof, and opposite this was a door giving access to a private staircase communicating with the lower floor. This door had been securely locked on the inside by the master of the house himself, but Dorothy knew where the key was to be found.

Up and down the long hall, dimly lighted by a swinging lamp of polished brass emitting fumes of whale-oil, paced a couple of red-coated sentries. Their duty was, in part, to keep watch over the officers' apartments, but chiefly to guard the staircase of the lookout in which Major Sevier was confined. At first their march had been kept up with military precision, but at length this strict discipline was relaxed, and as each in turn reached the head of the great staircase he would pause for an instant to glance down at the gay scene below.

It chanced that after one of these pauses, unconsciously longer than usual, the sentry turned sharply on his heel to find that his comrade had stolen a march upon him and had actually approached nearly half the length of the hall. But what was that shadowy figure which seemed to glide in the gloom beyond him across the end of the hall and disappear at the foot of the staircase? A man it seemed—a man in a long military cloak and a cocked hat. The puzzled and superstitious soldier stared, wondered, and doubted. Was it a ghost or a reality? Should he report what he had seen, or fancied he had seen—only to be reprimanded by his officer and laughed at by his comrades? And thus hesitating he continued his promenade, until the question was settled for him by the appearance of Colonel Forseyth, who came up-stairs on some errand to his own room.

Major Sevier was standing at the window of the small apartment which served as his prison, gazing out beyond the garden and the river in the rear of the house into the black distance, where he knew that amid the tangled thickets of the Dismal Swamp his Virginia minutemen were anxiously awaiting news of him. And here was he, a prisoner, and powerless in the hands of the foreign invaders who were making merry amid the ruins of the town which they had so ruthlessly destroyed. No wonder that the young officer chafed in spirit, and eagerly, though vainly, looked about for some means of escape. From the lookout the roof sloped steeply on three sides, the fourth being the gable end facing the street. If only he had a rope of sufficient length he would risk the chance of escape by the rear; but as it was he was powerless.

He turned sharply at the sound of the slow and cautious grating of a key in a lock; and then the door was softly opened and there stood before him a slight figure in a military cloak and cocked hat. Not until the hat was removed and the dim light fell upon the wearer's face did he recognize his visitor.

"Dorothy!" he exclaimed, advancing with both hands outstretched; but she hurriedly placed her finger on her lip in token of silence. Her eyes, so lately bright and laughing, were full of tears as she looked into those of her betrothed lover and allowed him for an instant to clasp her to his breast.

"Darling," he murmured, "how came you here?"

"Hush!" she whispered. "I have come to set you free. Oh, Philip, you have not a moment to lose. They"—her voice faltered—"they suspect you of being a spy."

"A spy!" he interrupted indignantly; but she again checked him.

"Take these"—she hurriedly threw off the cloak and commenced unloosing a stout rope which was wound and looped about her slender form, faintly smiling and blushing as she did so. "I stole the hat and cloak for you. I think they are Captain Leslie's. Tie the rope to that beam overhead and let yourself down from this rear window. The night is so dark that you will not be seen, and there is no sentry on that side. You will go straight down into an open cellar door, where you will find Nurse Juno awaiting you. She will take you to the garden. Behind the fig-trees is a loosened fence-board through which you can pass unseen."

"My brave, true-hearted Dolly!" he said, looking upon her with proud tenderness. But she, lightly placing her hand on his lips, went on breathlessly:

"Go straight to Woodford's wharf—it is not far—and there you will find Bristo, Juno's son, with a boat——"

She stopped suddenly, for the ears of both had caught the sound of voices at the foot of the stairs.

"Oh, Philip, what shall we do?"

"Do not think of me, love; but for you——"

He glanced hurriedly around. There was no place of concealment save a small closet in which were hanging some sheets of sail-cloth, occasionally used as screens to the windows.

"Oh, to be found here!" she said, a swift blush suffusing her face and even her neck. "They must not know why I came, for that would mar our plan; but then, to

be thought bold and unmaidenly—Philip, I could not bear it!"

Footsteps were heard ascending the stairs, and Dorothy's distress was pitiable. There was no time for thought, and her lover hastily led her to the closet—she pausing to snatch up the rope and the cloak and hat—and barely had she time to slip behind the sail-cloth when Captain Leslie appeared, attended by a couple of soldiers in Hessian uniform.

The two officers saluted each other with formal courtesy, and Captain Leslie said coldly:

"I am informed, major, that you have a visitor here. The sentry reports that he saw a man ascend the stairs to this room. Will it please you to step aside that I may search the closet?"

"I assure you, captain, that since your last visit here no man has entered."

"I will not question your word, Major Sevier, but can you explain to me how this door happens to be unlocked?"

This was a circumstance which strangely enough had been overlooked by both Sevier and his fair visitor. Seeing now that there was no escape from discovery, the prisoner stood silent, while the captain advanced toward the closet; but ere he could lay his hand upon the door-latch Sevier stepped quickly forward.

"Captain," he said in a low voice, "I pray you to do me the favor to cause your men to withdraw for a moment. I have an explanation to make to you in private."

The captain gave the desired command, and the Hessians retired to the staircase.

"I told you," resumed Sevier, in the same low and grave tone, "that no man had entered this room. I spoke the truth. It is a woman."

An expression of surprise and a peculiar smile played for an instant in the eyes of the British officer. Observing this, the young Virginian's face flushed, and he spoke again with impressive earnestness.

"It is a lady, captain—one who is my betrothed wife, and whose honor and fair name are dearer to me than life."

The captain bowed.

"I shall be satisfied, major, to see the lady. I have no wish to deal harshly with one of the other sex."

"But pardon me, captain—neither I nor the lady would desire that she should be seen and recognized here and her name be mentioned in your report and perchance bandied among the officers. Captain Leslie, I appeal to your chivalry and good feeling as a man and to your courtesy as a gentleman to respect the lady's feelings, if not mine."

The captain appeared moved, yet evidently not entirely satisfied.

"Far be it from me to doubt your word, Major Sevier," he said; "but my colonel, by whose orders I am here, may not be so easily contented. He may, perchance, require some more positive assurance that your visitor is a woman."

For a moment Sevier stood silent; then he said:

"I will give you such proof as I trust may satisfy you, so that you can of your own certain knowledge give assurance to your colonel."

He turned to the closet and set wide the door. There was only the sail-cloth in sight, though each could detect a slight movement as of some one shrinking behind this screen. Reverently he lifted the lower edge of the cloth and revealed to the captain's curious gaze the tips of two small feet—indisputably a woman's feet—encased in a pair of buff satin slippers with blue rosettes and gold buckles.

The captain bit his lip and stood gravely silent.

"Are you satisfied, captain?"

"I am satisfied, major. But one favor I would crave of you—to grant me one of those slippers for the satisfaction of my colonel, who will, I am assured, thereupon let this matter rest."

Major Sevier bent upon one knee and removed, as reverently and tenderly as though it had been some sacred relic, one of the little satin slippers. The captain received it as reverently, with a low bow.

"I shall now," he said, "secure the door of your room, major, and place a double

guard below. But first I will so arrange as that the lady can return as she came, unseen save by the sentry. Time passes, and three minutes will suffice."

And without staying for the major's thanks the English officer retired, followed by his Hessians, and was heard giving orders to the sentry below.

Then Major Sevier drew aside the sail-cloth screen, and Mistress Dorothy Habersham, flushed as red as any rose, stepped forth, and covering her face with her hands burst into tears.

"Be comforted, sweetheart; they will never know who was the wearer of the slipper," her lover whispered. But she shook her head as she brushed away her tears. However, there was no time for words. A hurried but fervent embrace—a whispered word of hope and encouragement—and Dorothy, with the remaining slipper in her hand, tripped softly down the narrow stair and glided past the sentry unchallenged.

When, some hours thereafter, it became known that the prisoner, Major Sevier, had escaped, none but Colonel Forseyth and Captain Leslie could have explained by what means he obtained possession of the rope by which it had been effected. It may be that they then repented them of their leniency, and perhaps, even, the grim colonel may have expressed himself in the language, more forcible than elegant, which was the fashion of his countrymen of that time, set by the royal princes across the water; but in any event Mistress Dorothy remained unmolested, rejoicing greatly in secret over her lover's escape. And on the following morning, as history records, the British fleet sailed away from Norfolk town and out of Virginia waters; so that Dorothy never again saw either of the scarlet-coated officers, a meeting with whom might have caused her some embarrassment. But she never ceased to regret having been compelled to deprive the generous young British officer of his cloak and hat, albeit he had appropriated her slipper. Still, could she properly blame him for this? Had he not simply taken her at her own word—her own promise—that if ever she could be discovered disloyal to the king's cause the colonel should be welcome to the slipper? And surely there had been proof sufficient; and the grim old officer, despite his discomfiture, had doubtless enjoyed the joke and her punishment.

Two years later, when the war was ended and the victorious patriots had returned to their peaceful homes, many marriages took place in Norfolk between lovers whom the troublous times had kept asunder. Of these weddings one was that of Mistress Dorothy Habersham and Colonel Philip Sevier; and among the presents to the bride there came from England a little package containing a golden vinaigrette in shape of a lady's high-heeled slipper ornamented with a rosette of turquoise set with a diamond. By this token only—for with an odd refinement of delicacy no name accompanied the gift—had Mistress Dorothy positive proof that she had been recognized as the wearer of the buff and blue slipper confiscated on that memorable night of her lover's escape.

THOUGHT.

BY MILDRED McNEAL.

ESSENCE of the Eternal, undefined
As is perfection, varied, exquisite,
Soul of bright nature, it was sent to bind
Our frailty with the generous Infinite.

THE PROBLEM OF DOMESTIC SERVICE IN ITS INDUSTRIAL ASPECTS.

BY KATHARINE COMAN.

PROFESSOR OF HISTORY AND ECONOMICS IN WELLESLEY COLLEGE.

DISCUSSION of the "servant question" rarely fails to summon a worried look to the face of the average housewife. The mere suggestion recalls a long series of vexatious incidents. Bridget is hopelessly incompetent and careless, or, when the painstaking attention of her mistress has imparted a certain degree of efficiency, the girl is likely to be enticed away by an offer of higher wages or by the greater attractions that shop or factory promises.

The servant problem is vexatious above all others because, to perpetrate an Irish bull, it comes so near home and because it is usually considered as a personal question merely. Attention is fixed on the incompetence, the ingratitude of the individual girl, the wrongs of the individual mistress. But we lose the sense of proportion when we see but the single case, and we cannot deal wisely with a grievance until we view it impersonally. Let us then endeavor to see the housekeeper's problem in relation to general industrial conditions, let us discover the economic influences by which the relation of mistress and servant is affected, let us learn how to adapt ourselves to changes rather than waste strength in a vain struggle against the inevitable.

Study of the industrial history of the past hundred years reveals the operation of two tendencies that have radically modified domestic economics. The first is the competition of machinery with hand labor, the substitution of factory-made for home-made goods. Most of the old-time household tasks are now performed outside the home. Colonial dames and the wives of pioneers were responsible not only for the daily meals and the weekly baking, but for the making of butter and cheese, the preserving of fruits and meats, the manufacture of lard, soap, and candles. If the modern housewife, in addition to mending and plain sewing, undertakes the fashioning of dresses for herself and daughters, we think she has deserved well of her country; but our grandmothers would have considered this the merest bagatelle. They spun and wove and dyed and cut and fitted, making not the garments only, but the cloth from which the garments were to be shaped, and this not for women and children merely, but for the men of the family as well. When Whittier set out from the Quaker farmhouse to seek his fortune in Boston, he wore a homespun suit, every part of which, even to the horn-buttons, was of domestic manufacture. The old-fashioned kitchen was the center of many industries and both men and women were artisans skilled in many trades. All this has been changed within the memory of man. A long series of inventions has reduced the cost of the factory product to the point where it is a waste of time to make cloth or clothing at home. The creamery, the abattoir, the canning establishment, the laundry, the bakery have one by one absorbed the household tasks, until there remains to us but a tithe of our grandmother's burden.

The second economic tendency is a direct consequence of the first. Women are following the work to the factory. Seventy-five years ago a woman who was obliged to earn her own living went naturally into domestic service, hardly asking whether there was any other available employment. The same woman to-day might choose among a hundred trades. The diverse forms of factory labor, the shops and retail stores, the hotels, restaurants, dressmaking and millinery establishments—all these and many more claimants for woman's labor have come into competition with domestic service. A general desertion of housework has been the result. The census of 1870,

the first to make separate enumeration of women employees, reports 1,838,288 women "engaged in gainful occupations." Of these nearly one half were domestic servants. According to the census of 1880, there were in that year 2,647,157 working women in the United States and only one third were employed as servants. In 1890 there were 3,914,573 women wage-earners, but thirty per cent of whom were in household service. The change is a striking one. The number of women who work for wages has increased even more rapidly than population, while the proportion of those who choose housework as a vocation has steadily fallen off.

The effect for our problem of this double tendency is evident. There is far less work to be done in our homes than in the day of the spinning-wheel and the hand-loom, but the remaining tasks occasion us more perplexity than our forebears ever dreamed of devoting to them.

Our difficulties are mainly due to the fact that the intelligent, thrifty American girl of the class from which servants formerly came turns from domestic service to find more congenial employment at the clerk's desk or behind the counter. The ignorant foreigner, Irish, German, Nova Scotian, or Swede, who takes her place knows next to nothing of the necessities of a refined household. She may come direct from an earth-floor cottage and a peat fire. The experience that was acquired as a matter of every-day living by the woman of the olden time is not to be found among the applicants of a modern employment bureau.

Since it is impossible to bring back former conditions, it becomes the part of wisdom to discover how to adjust our domestic arrangements to the present.

There is needed first of all training in the best and most expeditious way of doing the work that must still be done in the home. The training should include the mistress as well as the maid, the science as well as the art of their common task. Housework is attractive to intelligent women in proportion as they put intelligence into it. Cooking classes, lectures on sanitation, and schools of domestic science multiply in all our cities, and they are well patronized by women who have direction of households, but there is considerable difficulty in inducing women to undertake such an education with a view to service. The causes are not far to seek. Work is to be had in abundance without any preliminary apprenticeship, while women who might be glad to fit themselves for higher-paid positions cannot usually afford the expenditure of time and money required. The women, moreover, who have both the good sense and the opportunity to educate themselves for a vocation will not select housework until the trained servant is accorded a position like that of the trained nurse.

This brings us to the second stage in the process of readjustment. If the kitchen is to compete successfully with the extra-domestic trades, the conditions of household service must be made as attractive as those of the shop. Women do not abandon housework for better pay, for pleasanter or more wholesome tasks. An interesting inquiry now being prosecuted by the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston as to why girls employed in shops and factories have not chosen domestic service goes to prove that such employees earn comparatively low wages and think housework the more interesting and more healthful occupation, yet whenever the workshop comes into competition with domestic service the kitchen is deserted. What superior attractions has the workshop to offer? First and foremost, regular hours. In most of our manufacturing states protective legislation limits the working day of women employed in factories and workshops to ten hours, and government takes good care that the law is enforced. Inspectors are appointed to visit the places where women and minors are employed and report any infringement of the statute. However wearisome the day, the factory employee looks forward to an evening all her own. Compare with this the position of the housemaid. Legislation, custom, or public opinion sets no limit to the duration of her service. From six in the morning till nine at night is not re-

garded as an unreasonable working day. A brisk maid may get two or three hours for rest in the course of the day; but, except for the afternoon out, she is not expected to quit the house. She is always on call. The law prohibits Sunday labor in factory and workshop, but this nineteenth-century echo of the Mosaic code does not reach the kitchen. It is true that many mistresses arrange to lighten the Sunday work, but this is a voluntary concession on their part that may at any time be withdrawn. It is not a right that the girl can insist upon and maintain.

A further potent attraction in the workshop is companionship. Household employment is lonely as compared with the shop or the store, and the disadvantage is not a slight one. No girl will choose to spend her days in a basement kitchen, with the range and the cat for company, when she may work side by side with her friends at the sewing machine or behind the counter. The factory operative, moreover, lives at home or among her friends. She is not obliged to take an attic room nor to sit at a second and inferior table. She may receive her friends or "followers" every evening of the week and no one will object. The house servant may be better housed, but she is not free. Here lies the secret of the general prejudice against domestic service. It combines with the grievances of the hireling the ignominy of the dependent.

In the competition between workshop and kitchen, the workshop will surely triumph, unless the housekeeper can offer girls the same or equivalent inducements. Money-wage is not the most important consideration. Girls prefer the shop to the kitchen at half the earnings. The housekeeper must be able to offer conditions as desirable as those prevailing in the rival employments, or abandon the hope of securing competent service.

This is a dark prospect for the house with one servant. Perhaps the ultimate solution for people of moderate means will be that urged by Professor Salmon in her admirable treatise on "Domestic Service," viz., cooperative housekeeping.

THE WOMEN OF STOCKHOLM.

BY EMILY F. WHEELER.

STOCKHOLM is indeed beautiful for situation, on its seven rocky islands, between which flow the swift currents of Lake Malar to join the Baltic. Stately bridges connect these islands, but more fascinating are the boats everywhere, the ferries, and the little excursion steamers flying in every direction in the long summer twilight. Take any one of these boats and you are sure of a delightful trip, for the environs to which they ply will show you that one of the charms of Stockholm is that it is a modern city, a gay and pleasure-loving capital, with a primeval wilderness at its very doors. They name it the Venice of the North, but it is no copy. It recalls neither its Italian nor its Dutch sister. Nor does it, except in a certain style of building, recall its other namesake, Paris. It is an original proof, a city with a distinct individuality and charm of its own—a charm which grows on you from day to day. You note its evident prosperity, its cleanliness. There are few signs of poverty and no beggary. Every one is busy, but not too busy to be polite and helpful to the stranger within its gates. We saw the city in holiday mood, for the exposition was crowding its streets with provincials in quaint costume and foreigners innumerable. But one felt that the general atmosphere of courtesy and kindness was not put on for the occasion. Politeness is indeed the Swedish child's first lesson and "tak" (thanks) the word most often heard everywhere. It is pretty to watch the boys on the street taking their caps off and on as if by magic, on meeting an older person, and the

little girls greeting with a quaint little "bob" as they pass—a mere bend of the knee, like a boat dipping to the wave. Courtesy to all, reverence to old age—these two good lessons every child is early taught and habit soon becomes second nature.

Stockholm seems in some things more like a big village than a world-capital. Every one knows, if not every one else, at least something about him—his antecedents, his business and social standing. The king and the royal family are easily approached. If a school is to be opened or a new market dedicated, there is King Oscar, moving freely about like any other gentleman. The queen is interested in all manner of benevolent enterprises, and Prince Oscar, the second son, who gave up his royal rank to marry as he liked, is a Sunday-school superintendent and leads his "teachers' meeting" in most informal fashion. Another prince, Eugene, is an artist of ability and on familiar terms with all his brotherhood. Class lines are indeed clearly drawn in Sweden and the nobles are tenacious of position and privilege; but the reigning family seem quite democratic in feeling and action. It is perhaps an inheritance from the French soldier, himself a commoner, who came in 1810 to rule over the land and head a line of good kings. So the royal palace seems more homelike than most of its kind, and the balls given in its magnificent ballroom, the "White Sea," are more like receptions, and permit often an informal chat with His Majesty. One may meet him on the street or in the beautiful shops, like the rest of the world; and this familiarity breeds, not contempt, but respect and liking.

So simplicity is the dominant note in the life of the ordinary woman of Stockholm. There, as all over Europe, people live in tiers, on shelves, so to speak, the highest and lowest floors of the tall houses being the least desirable. Enter and the first thing you notice is the immense porcelain stove in one corner—twelve feet high sometimes and a real work of art in its decoration. The fuel is wood and these stoves diffuse a gentle, steady warmth and are far cleaner and healthier than our furnaces. There are double windows, and every crack is carefully pasted over, for the terror of life seems to be drafts; so perhaps the ventilation is not as good as with us. The floors are bare, with rugs, and there is a profusion of house plants. There is a rigid yearly inspection of all chimneys and flues, and the building regulations are so strict that fires are practically unknown. Insurance companies cannot grow rich, one would say, since the usual rates are about one twentieth of one per cent, and you can insure your home forever for about what we pay for two years.

The wages of one servant with us will pay for four or five in Stockholm. Moreover, servants are permanent. Twice a year, in April and October, they may change, but long years of service is almost the rule. "Blue Monday" is unknown, since washing is a half-yearly festival, or at most a quarterly one. That means stores of linen, and after seeing the supplies of the Swedish housewife in good circumstances you believe the tales told of a certain queen of the seventeenth century whose stores at Gripsholm are still unexhausted. But in those good old days even queens—in Sweden—spun and wove, and saw to the brewing of ale and mead, and kept a sharp watch on the maids in the royal dairy; nay, even sold the fruit from the palace gardens and kept careful account of the milk of the hundred cows.

If you are sick you can have a trained nurse for about thirty-five cents a day; but the true Swede thinks a proper course of gymnastics will cure almost everything but a fever or some difficulty requiring a surgeon. And doctors in Stockholm never send bills. On the eve of New Year's the house-father sends to the family physician what he thinks right; he receives the doctor's card in return, as receipt; but if he sent nothing the good man would still come when called for.

When a baby comes into a Swedish home the first question is as to its baptism. The sooner the better; but no one but the parents must know the name until the

actual ceremony. Usually this takes place at home and there are often a dozen sponsors. By the Lutheran belief, baptism makes the child a member of the visible church, and confirmation, which follows at fourteen or fifteen, completes the work. For the girl this ceremony marks the passage to young-ladyhood. Presently she goes into society; but a curious custom prevails at evening parties of putting married and elderly ladies in one room and the maidens in another. The older men are by themselves and the younger are supposed to keep with them. There is no such free intercourse as with us. To join a young lady in the street is not allowable, and to offer one's arm is almost a proposal of marriage. Often two who are betrothed only make real acquaintance afterward. Between the "first publishing day" of the bans and the wedding the gifts arrive, and the bride's myrtle crown for the great day is often woven from a vine she has herself tended from girlhood.

As myrtle is sacred to the bride, so the evergreen is the symbol of mourning. It is strewn before the door as a message to friends; it dresses the room of the dead, and is heaped on the new-made grave. Even for Christmas greens the evergreen is never used; the birch takes its place. For the most of the year the birch is to the Swedish child a symbol of punishment; but twice, at Christmas and at Shrove Tuesday, it becomes his joy. Just before the latter holiday the markets of Stockholm are full of toy brooms made of birch and gay feathers. These the children may buy, and on Shrove Tuesday morning they may roam the house and whip all who stay in bed. Then the little brooms are put in water, and in the warm air the tender twigs send out their tiny green leaves and fill the house with the breath of the coming spring.

Summer is short in Sweden, but the most is made of it while it lasts. All who can leave the city for summer cottages on the lake or the coast. The network of inland waters and the many long winding bays on the coast have made the Swedes a nation of sailors and fisher-folk; and what with one class is a matter of livelihood is with another a recreation and pleasure. The cottage must be by the water—there must be bathing and fishing. For those who cannot go, there is always the royal park, and there it is one perpetual picnic. The *cafés* are crowded, whole families taking dinner and supper in their gardens. One's first impression is that half the city must dine out of doors. But indeed in summer Stockholm seems to give itself up to pleasure. The day is long enough for that after the regular hours of work are over; and so in the golden twilight, which lasts to ten or later, you find all excursion boats crowded. The ferries cannot ply fast enough for the throng on their way to the parks; and everywhere there is music. On Sunday the morning is fairly quiet, though excursion boats and trains are many even then. But in the afternoon and evening every one seems on pleasure bent. Whole fleets of little steamers glide in every direction; the open-air theaters are full; there is dancing on the grass and families picnicking under the trees. The tourist sees little drunkenness, perhaps because the Swede in his cups is quiet. The Gothenburg system has done much to restrain this national vice; but there, as here, fashion is responsible for much drinking. On all social occasions wine and punch appear, and to be a total abstainer is very inelegant. It is the custom before sitting down to dinner to take an appetizer at a side table. Here are certain dainty dishes, cold meats and relishes, and almost always "something strong" of which the gentlemen partake.

Christmas is the joy of the northern winter, but one sees the festival best in the country. There is the early service in the church blazing with candles, and the old carols and hymns of Luther. The Christmas tree is found even in the poorest homes, for a good Swede would think it a slight on his great forests if he did not once a year crown the evergreen with candles and let the children dance about it. The day after is almost as sacred. Then comes Epiphany, and at last, on Knut's Day—

January 13—Christmas dances out, and children and elders settle down to the long winter of work. Midsummer Eve, another great festival, is the crowning of summer on its longest day, and the maypole is then the center of the frolic. Stockholm has another celebration of its own, Flower Week. It is the third week in July, and on one of its days it pays special honor to a people's poet—Bellman. It is a popular celebration in the park. His statue there is crowned, and, gathered about it, the people sing his songs. We had the good fortune to see this celebration, and very interesting we found it.

The woman movement in Sweden owed its beginnings to Frederika Bremer. She came back from her visit to our country in 1851 confirmed in her previous ideas as to the injustice done her sisters in the matter of education and limited opportunities for self-support. She wished them to be as highly trained as men, and prophesied truly as to their undeveloped powers. Progress has been slow, quiet, but effectual in the last thirty-five years, and nearly all careers are now open to them. There is no "woman's rights" party, but the Bremer Association in Stockholm works quietly for practical reforms. There have been established free scholarships for higher education and art training and a relief fund for working women—a kind of insurance. There is a committee to give protection to young girls in strange cities, another to furnish country districts with properly trained and certificated nurses, another which makes a special study of books for children, and others for dress reform and home study. Their motto is the saying of Frederika Bremer, "It is only true emancipation which saves from the false one."

The associated charities is active in Stockholm, and there are many benevolent societies which act in concert with it. There are deaconesses, model lodging houses and refuges, *crèches* for the children of working women, and free industrial schools; in all these, women, young and old, are active. In brief, Stockholm, like other cities of to-day, has its "higher life" and noble men and women to further it, under a royal family whose own activity is on the same unselfish plane. It is perhaps needless to say that the Salvation Army is here; and there is great need of their work because of the peculiar situation made by a state church. Few families in Stockholm have a "pastor," in our sense of the word. Their relations with the state-appointed preacher of the church they attend are largely official. A parish may have thousands of members and be of great extent, and the five or six clergymen who serve it only suffice for the official duties—the christenings, weddings, funerals, and preparation of candidates for confirmation. A pastor who knows his people in any thorough fashion is very rare. In a state church, moreover, a real religious experience is not required for the clerical office. The young man chooses the church as a profession, as he would the law, and may go through his official duties with little feeling for their deep spiritual meaning. The church assumes that her rites are effectual, her prayers accepted, and that by baptism and confirmation all are made partakers of her blessings. The Bible, the catechism, and church history are the basis of education, so that on the intellectual side the church gives excellent training.

Sweden has always been a little apart from the world. She has had to develop, under the limitations of poverty, the resources of her own people and of a land far from rich. So one finds there still in many districts something like the old New England simplicity, when everything to eat and wear must be produced at home; when the social life must center in the church and its festivals; where fashions, either of dress or entertainment, are those of their forefathers. And this note of simplicity is, on the whole, still dominant with the majority, even in Stockholm. Plain living and simple pleasures dominate, but the faces glowing with health and cheerfulness prove this simplicity no bar to content and happiness. Mother Svea, like our own of earlier days, finds the discipline of work and self-denial good for her children.

THE WOMEN OF THE CABINET.

BY ETTA RAMSDELL GOODWIN.

MRS. HOBART.

WOMEN in the Supreme Court circle, the most conservative element in the official life of Washington and the ballast during the unsettled times at the beginning and at the end of every administration, watch the cabinets come and go, and with the people of the wealthy resident set pile up traditions to which the actors in the four years' society drama are expected to conform. Tradition is much, but the word of the president is more, and between the two the cabinet ladies sometimes find their parts difficult to play, and there are plunges from burlesque to melodrama and from melodrama back to burlesque before the performance is given in smooth and proper fashion. The wives of diplomats may be said to have seats in the boxes with the wives of senators, the wives of Supreme Court justices, and the simply rich, and they are languidly patronizing. Their approbation is to be desired, but that of the other spectators, the public, is a necessity, and this combination of results to be attained makes the social career of a cabinet woman, especially a new cabinet woman, a complicated progress.

The fine enthusiasm of the newcomer, in her position as one of the hostesses of the nation, leads her to idealize the public. She is more concerned with her obligations to it than she is agitated about the impression she is making on the smart and exclusive ones of her own set. The women of the present cabinet are in this stage; so far they have more theories than experience. They look forward to their receptions with pleasure, not as events to be dreaded;

they enjoy shaking hands with the wives of the men who indirectly appointed them to their positions of eminence, considering that that is one way of saying "Thank you." There is rivalry among them for the largest crowd on Wednesday afternoons. They resent the idea that they have banished refreshments from their receptions because there is a possibility of people coming in order to be fed, and insist that they have only made the rule in obedience to the request of the president, refusing to believe the stories they hear about the disgusting scenes that have taken place around Washington refreshment tables. By next season some of the rosy views of the delight of entertaining the public will be modified. They will still enjoy their receptions, but they will be able to see a grain of truth in the anecdotes that people tell of visitors who carried away fruit in paper bags, tore flowers from the table, and in some cases actually walked away with silver bonbon dishes. In those days of the feeding reign respectable people were almost afraid to be seen at public receptions in the fear of being classed with the refreshment hunters. Now that absolute simplicity marks the hospitality of the official hostess in her relation to the public, hungry folks stay away, but the crowd will be quite as large and much more decent.

The members of President McKinley's cabinet have taken the first step toward popularity in making attractive homes for themselves. When people point out the houses of their cabinet they like to do it proudly. A large establishment, magnificence in entertaining, well-liveried servants, and perfectly appointed equipages ought to go with high social position, and when the officials are so rich that they do not have to worry about the discrepancy between the amount of entertaining that is expected of them and the smallness of the amount of money that the government gives them to do it with, so much the better for the brilliancy of the administration and the satisfaction of everybody.

MRS. SHERMAN.

After the choice of a home comes the choice of a secretary. There is always a rush on the part of the cabinet women at the beginning of an administration for the possession of a young woman who has served for so many years that she has become the queen of social secretaries — Miss Hunt, the daughter of a former secretary of the navy, who has passed from experience as a cabinet woman into the position of secretary to other cabinet women. She was with Mrs. Morton, then with Mrs. Olney, and now is employed by Mrs. Hobart. A cabinet woman's popularity with the public depends upon herself, but popularity in official so-

ciety sometimes depends upon her secretary. She must know Washington thoroughly, with all the little unwritten laws that govern the tactful hostess; must know whose calls are to be returned personally and to whom cards may be sent; that the women of the cabinet and the women of the Supreme Court set must not be invited to a dinner at the same time, and that the only way to settle another precedence dispute is to separate the British ambassador and the vice-president as far as possible in her invitations. For on no account will Sir Julian Pauncefote give up to the vice-president the seat of honor at a dinner table, even if the dinner is given to Mr. Hobart.

MRS. GAGE.

The most important feature of the season for the cabinet officer and his wife is the dinner to the president and his wife. Beginning with the vice-president, who really does not belong to the cabinet but who is usually included in the circle, the dinners are given by the cabinet in the order of succession established among the different secretaries. The wife of the president is also entertained at luncheon by the cabinet ladies in turn and dinners are made for guests who happen to be in the White House. A visitor of international prominence, such as the premier of Canada, Sir Wilfrid Laurier, who recently visited Washington, is made the guest of honor at a reception or a dinner by the secretary of state. The secretary of war and his wife give a reception every year for the army, and the secretary of the navy entertains in honor of the navy. The members of the cabinet and their wives are entertained at least once during the season by every foreign ambassador and by every foreign minister of importance, and no rich private citizen and his wife have justified their claim to position in fashionable society until they have given a dinner in honor of the cabinet.

The most trying moment in the career of the wife of the newly appointed member of the cabinet is when she first takes her position in the receiving line near the wife of the president at the White House receptions. The most self-possessed woman feels a sensation of awkwardness when she sees the gate to the Blue Room closed, shutting out the crowd in the red corridor and leaving an open space in front of her. The guests come pouring in from the Red Room. Hands are grasped by the president, then by his wife, and the visitors are passed on. In most cases the visitor does not know what to do then—whether it is proper even to speak to stranger cabinet women—whether he should shake hands or simply bow. When the cabinet woman has had experience she will help the visitor out of the difficulty, take the hand whether it is offered or not, give it a little shake and then a push, until it is caught by the next woman in line, all the time reflecting in her face the smile of the mistress of the White House.

Harmony between the first lady in the land and the ladies of the cabinet is to be desired above all things, and fortunately it exists now in a supreme degree. The suspicion of an unexpressed wish on the part of the president or Mrs. McKinley is a command to their cabinet. The almost unheard-of consideration that was shown for the president during the illness and after the

MRS. ALGER.

death of his mother was not a matter of official etiquette but of personal inclination. The relations between the occupants of the White House and the cabinet houses are so close in this administration that the term "official family" is well applied. Not once but several times a week, and sometimes every day, Mrs. McKinley is visited by her official daughters. They go to her informally, and in the evening there are games of cribbage, which is Mrs. McKinley's favorite game of cards.

The presence of Miss Barber, Mrs. McKinley's niece, has done much to brighten the White House, and had it not been for the bereavement of the president there would have been no gayer place in the country than the Executive Mansion during the holidays. Miss Barber and the young ladies in the cabinet set are extremely good friends, and there has seldom been a time when there were as many attractive girls in the administration circle.

The vice-president and Mrs. Hobart have become society leaders *par excellence*. There is a tradition of hospitality attached to the home they have taken—the Cameron house—and one sees in it now a happy mixture of the taste of Mrs. Cameron, the beautiful wife of the owner, and that of Mrs. Hobart, who has brought pictures, ornaments, and rugs enough from her Patterson home to give it some of her own individuality. The house of the vice-president and that of the secretary of war, Mr. Alger, can show the best paintings to be seen in any of the cabinet houses, in fact some of the best in Washington. Mrs. Hobart is fond of her miniatures, and she has a fine collection, well displayed against the background of a dark velvet screen in a charming little room done in green and dull pink. Mrs. Hobart

can talk well about music, art, politics, and books. She is hospitable, charitable, amiable, and good-looking. The friendship between the vice-president and the newly appointed Attorney-General Griggs began when they were both in the law office of Mrs. Hobart's father. The wives are as good friends as the husbands.

Of all the cabinet perhaps Mrs. Sherman, the wife of the secretary of state, cares least for the turmoil of gaiety that comes with the step into the cabinet circle. She has no natural liking for the formalities of official society, and in all the years in Washington she has not learned to like it or to pretend to like it. Her nature is abundantly hospitable, and

MRS. GARY.

MRS. LONG.

so is that of the secretary of state, but they care very little for affairs that take them out of their home. Mrs. Sherman has a very sweet and unselfish nature, a splendid loyalty, and a most generous heart. Mrs. McCallum, the dearly loved adopted daughter of the Shermans, said once that she had not in her recollection the memory of one unkind or angry word uttered by her father or mother to each other or to her. Mrs. McCallum's little son, John Sherman McCallum, is head of the Sherman household just now. The secretary is never as happy as when the small John is allowed to come to the table, and he has his permission to

play tunes on the silver dishes with the soup ladle, knock the pieces of cut glass about the table, and do a great many things that are against the rules of his wise little mother.

The descriptions that one reads of Mrs. Gage, the wife of the secretary of the treasury, hardly do her justice. It is all very well to say that she is conservative and motherly, fond of home, unassuming, and sincere. These qualities are very admirable, and Mrs. Gage unquestionably possesses them, but they have a luke-warm sound when applied to her. They are too often used to describe the commonplace woman, and Mrs. Gage is not commonplace. She is just the sort of woman whom it is a pleasure to see at the head of a large and well-appointed establishment. She is attractive in appearance and dignified, and has a frank manner that is irresistible. She is fond of young people, although she has no children.

Mrs. Alger, the wife of the secretary of war, is the beauty of the cabinet women. She has also the prettiest clothes, is most fastidious as to her equipages, the appointments of her table and of her house, and is perhaps a more thorough society woman than any of her associates. Her manner is perfect, and she was popular from the moment of her arrival in Washington. The Hazen house, which the Algers have taken, is not attractive on the outside, but it is well arranged for entertaining. There are five children in the Alger family. Two of the daughters are married; the other, Miss Frances, who is one of the most conspicuous of the young ladies of the cabinet, is very clever, very fond of the world, and exceedingly attractive. She is one of the best horsewomen in Washington and drives an alarmingly fiery pair of bays. Her marriage with Charles Pike, a rich young lawyer in Chicago, will take place next June in Washington.

Another young girl will be married out of the cabinet set during this administration, Miss Lillian Gary—daughter of the postmaster-general — who is engaged to Robert Taylor of New York. Mrs. Gary is proud of her daughters. There are seven of them, four married and three at home, taking part in all the gaiety of smart Wash-

MRS. BLISS.

MISS WILSON.

ington. The girls are unusual. They can talk and say something to be remembered and repeated. Miss Lillian is the wittiest and Miss Madeline the beauty of the family. The latter is a splendid dark creature. She has a perfectly healthy mind, but she has one of the most remarkable fads ever adopted by a young girl. She dotes on skulls and skeletons. She has real skulls on the mantelpiece of her boudoir and match-boxes and ink-stands and other knick-knacks in the form of skulls. The girls are all musical, and they play on all manner of instruments. Mrs. Gary gave a luncheon some time ago in order to give the ladies of the cabinet an opportunity to hear the "Gary Orchestra," as she calls them, and they have also played for Mrs. McKinley, who finds their music delightful.

Washington has seen little of Mrs. Long, the wife of the secretary of the navy, until within the last two or three months, her place being filled during the first part of the administration by her step-daughter, Miss Helen Long, who is a charming girl, with wonderful self-possession and dignity. The other daughter of the secretary of the navy is studying medicine in Johns Hopkins University, and is too much interested in her life there to care for all the gaiety that Washington has to offer. Mrs. Long is youthful and rather delicate in appearance,

MRS. PORTER.

large-eyed, and very gentle and sweet. The Longs are living in the Portland, but the fact that they are boarding does not seem to interfere with their hospitality and their receptions are always crowded and are delightful occasions.

The family of the secretary of the interior will take very little part in Washington society, owing to the fact that Mrs. Bliss is an invalid and likes New York better than Washington. She has a son who has just graduated at college and gone into a law office in New York, and the New York house is kept open on his account. She and her daughter have been in Washington only at intervals during the winter, much to the regret of those who know them.

Miss Wilson, the daughter of the secretary of agriculture, is the mistress of her father's household, and is very popular with the cabinet ladies and also with Mrs. McKinley. She is an interesting looking girl, with dark hair and eyes and a rich and clear, though pale, complexion. She sings delightfully, and is clever in playing her own accompaniments.

Mrs. Griggs, who now enters the cabinet circle as the wife of the attorney-general, was formerly a Cleveland woman, Miss Elizabeth Price, the daughter of Mr. and Mrs. Warwick Price. During her girlhood she lived in New York and she has almost as many friends there as in New Jersey.

When the office of the "president's private secretary" was transformed at the beginning of this administration into that of "secretary to the president" it was decided to include Secretary Porter and his wife in the cabinet set; so Mrs. Porter has a place in the receiving line at the White House receptions. The Porters are relatives of the Boardmans, who are among the most fashionable people of Washington, and they have a high social position aside from that of their official standing. Mrs. Porter is a charming woman, the most delightful of hostesses, and the most judicious and tender mother to her two pretty little girls.

HISTORY AS IT IS MADE.*

SENATOR E. O. WOLCOTT.

WHATEVER can be construed as having a bearing upon the congressional campaign this year and the presidential campaign of 1900 occupies large space in the public press. In this light are to be viewed the developments, in and out of Congress, concerning the money question. Since the presentation of Secretary Gage's plan of currency reform to the House of Representatives, came, first in the order of time, a speech by Senator E. O. Wolcott of Colorado, on international bimetalism, in the Senate January 17.

Mr. Wolcott spoke as the leading member of the Bimetallic Commission which President McKinley sent abroad, and he explained that the unexpected attitude of the government of India in opposition to reopening its mints to the coinage of silver caused the failure of negotiations with Great Britain, in which France had joined with the United States. Mr. Wolcott expressed hopefulness regarding future international negotiations, when experience has further demonstrated how masses of people are suffering under evils which he attributes to the single gold standard. He asserted that the commission had the most hearty support of the president, but alleged that reports purporting to assure Great Britain that the secretary of the treasury and the people in general of the United States favored a more thorough commitment to the gold standard hampered the commission in its work. Mr. Wolcott announced his retirement from the commission and suggested that it might be necessary in future negotiations to propose a change of coinage ratio to about twenty to one, as more nearly in accord with the ratios of silver-using nations.

Following the Wolcott speech came the introduction of a resolution in the Senate by Henry M. Teller (who bolted the St. Louis Republican Convention in 1896), reaffirming, in substance, a resolution introduced by Senator Matthews of Ohio and passed by both houses of Congress in 1878. It embodies the declaration:

> All the bonds of the United States issued or authorized to be issued under the acts of Congress of 1869, 1870, and 1875 are payable, principal and interest, at the option of the government of the United States, in silver dollars, of the coinage of the United States, containing 412½ grains each of standard silver; and that to restore to its coinage such silver coins as a legal tender in payment of said bonds, principal and interest, is not in violation of the public faith, nor in derogation of the rights of the public creditor.

The debate on this resolution was well worth following by those who wish to understand what proportions the money question is assuming in American politics. Technically, it was admitted that government bonds, including those issued under the Cleveland administration according to provisions of the Resumption Act of 1875, are payable in "coin." Supporters of the resolution pointed to the fact that late issues of government bonds brought many millions

* This department, together with the book "The Social Spirit in America," constitutes the special C. L. S. C. course Current History, for the reading of which a seal is given.

less in the market than they would have brought if the word "gold" had been used instead of "coin" on the bonds. Here, they said, is a reason for government payment of bonds in silver or gold coin at its option, according to the terms of the contract. They declared that payment in appreciating gold, upon the demand of the bondholders, would, under the circumstances, be extortion. On the other hand, opponents of the resolution denounced its wording as an indorsement of independent free silver coinage propaganda. They interpreted it as a declaration in favor of repudiating an obligation to pay just debts in

SENATOR HENRY M. TELLER.

currency of standard value, involving national credit and honor in the eyes of the world. Although Republicans, including William McKinley, then a congressman, voted for the Matthews Resolution in 1878, the charge of inconsistency in their present attitude was answered by the declaration that conditions had changed since 1878.

Like the Matthews Resolution, the Teller Resolution was concurrent in form—a form that has been utilized many times by Congress for the expression of its opinions, without requiring either affirmation or veto by the president, and hence lacking the force of law. The significance of the Teller Resolution, therefore, lay in its power to reveal party alinement on the money question, which is generally supposed to be in process of new formation.

The House of Representatives, after five hours' debate, rejected the Teller Resolution by a vote of 182 to 132, a majority of 50, Speaker Reed voting in the negative. Republicans, with two exceptions, voted against it, and Democrats and Populists, with two exceptions, voted for it. In the Senate an amendment declaring for payment of bonds "in gold or its equivalent" was voted down by a majority of twenty-nine.

A survey of political developments would be incomplete without reference to the election of Senator Stephen M. White as chairman of the Democratic Congressional Committee, and that body's reaffirmation of the Chicago platform as the basis of campaigning. The tendency to draw the lines more definitely on the money question appears in the passage of a resolution by the Kentucky legislature calling upon Senator Lindsay to resign his seat if he cannot support the Democratic position, and the introduction of a request in the New York legislature for the resignation of Senator Murphy because he voted for the Teller Resolution. Among the Populists it is to be noted that organization has been effected by those who oppose further fusion with the Democrats, and a referendum upon the subject of fixing a date for the independent nomination of a candidate for president in 1900 is already in progress. A national conference of Prohibitionists has also been held, at which plans of campaigning and support for the same were adopted.

Three sharp senatorial contests have returned two members of the Senate of the United States to succeed themselves and one sound money senator in place of a supporter of the Chicago platform. The contest in Ohio loomed large in the public eye, because of a combination of Republicans, Democrats, and Populists against the reelection of Marcus A. Hanna. Under this combination the legislature, although nom-

SENATOR MARCUS A. HANNA.

inally Republican, gave the organization of the state body over to the Democrats. The leader of the coalition was Charles L. Kurtz, Republican, whom Senator Hanna, who is also chairman of the Republican National Committee, had antagonized. Governor Bushnell, who appointed Mr. Hanna to the senatorial seat made vacant by Mr. Sherman's promotion to be secretary of state, also joined in the fight against Mr. Hanna. It turned out that the combination instead of nominating a free silver candidate named Mayor Robert E. McKisson, Republican, of Cleveland, as its candidate. Mr. Hanna, however, took the field in person, and won a reelection on a single ballot with the necessary majority of one. The progress of this contest furnished plenty of news for the papers, since it was considered that the national administration was in a sense on trial in the president's own state. Mr. Hanna was elected to serve for a long and a short term, lasting until March, 1905.

SENATOR LOUIS E. M'COMAS.

Another senator who will be his own successor is Thomas B. Turley, free silver Democrat, of Tennessee. He had held no civil office until appointed United States senator last year by Governor Taylor, to succeed the late Senator Isham G. Harris. His chief opponent was Representative Benton McMillin, who has been in Congress for twenty years, and was only recently supplanted as Democratic leader of the House by Mr. Bailey of Texas.

Maryland contributes a new senator to take the place of the veteran Democrat Arthur P. Gorman. He is Louis E. McComas, judge of the District Court of Columbia and a "sound money" Republican. He is fifty-two years of age, a graduate of Dickinson College, served four terms in Congress, and was secretary of the National Republican Committee in the campaign of 1892. The same year he was appointed to the bench of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia. He was elected senator on the tenth ballot, the full Democratic vote being cast for him. Mr. Gorman has been in the Senate since 1881, and has been one of the chief political managers of the Democratic party to date.

Differences between the Rev. Dr. John Hall and his church have attracted wide attention in religious circles. Dr. Hall is sixty-nine years of age and has been pastor of the Fifth Avenue Presbyterian Church, New York City, for more than thirty years, but his Scotch-Irish vigor is not impaired and his congregations are large. Yet it has been known for some time that changes in the pastorate have been under consideration by both the pastor and officials of the church. From the official point of view the trouble is an economic one. That is to say, the richest Presbyterian church in the United States, if not in the world, with a church property worth $2,000,000, a $100,000 parsonage, and other property for

branches of church work, appeared to be in danger of not paying expenses. Originally there were pews in the church which sold outright for from $3,000 to $5,000. Such pews, remaining in a family, produced their share of general expenses besides; but when families left and attempts to resell, in certain instances, resulted in bids as low as $5, some of the business heads in the church calculated that changes of administration under the rented pew system were advisable. This parent church has obligations to meet for the carrying on of mission work in other parts of the city which is not self-supporting, and the Fifth Avenue income must be adequate to meet these demands as well as its own expenses. The Fifth Avenue Church itself has some 2,600 communicants, and the Session was about to secure the employment of an assistant pastor for the ostensible purpose of increasing the strength of the church among the younger generation. But a crisis seems to have been precipitated by requests from the Home and Foreign Missionary and Educational Boards of the Presbyterian denomination asking explanations for the recent falling off of from fifty to seventy-five per cent in the Fifth Avenue's contributions to the benevolences they manage. Dr. Hall then announced his intention to resign. Whereupon the congregation, in mass-meetings, requested their pastor to withdraw his resignation, and he has done so. A number of members of the Session threaten to refuse to continue to be officially responsible for the support of the church. The circumstances of the Fifth Avenue incident have been recognized as revealing phases of a problem that confronts more than one church. Added interest has been taken in it because Dr. John Hall has been known as one of the most famous preachers of the country, who, while thoroughly orthodox, preferred to stand for toleration between the old and new schools of Presbyterianism rather than to become a partisan on either side.

DR. JOHN HALL.

To turn from the Fifth Avenue Church to the Salvation Army, where differences in the Booth family resulted in the formation of the Volunteers of America under the leadership of Ballington Booth in 1896, it is to be noted that it was the economic side of affairs which had much to do with bringing about an agreement to stop controversy as far as possible between the organizations in the public press or otherwise. Generous supporters of both movements insisted that in this country fighting forces were demoralized by personal differences among commanders. The result was a formal conference in New York, before witnesses, and the agreement mentioned, between Ballington Booth of the Volunteers and Gen. William Booth, commander-in-chief of the Salvation Army throughout the world. General Booth, after touring Canada, will return to visit some eighty cities of the United States in his official capacity. The Army now owns property exceeding $4,000,000 in value, and issues periodicals with a combined weekly circulation exceeding 1,000,000. The United States commanders are Frederick De LaTour Booth-Tucker and his wife, having 675 corps (societies) and 2,125 officers under them. The Volunteers in less than two years have organized eight

regiments of sixteen battalions, with one hundred and fifty staff officers in charge, organizations being established in about one hundred and fifty cities and towns. The movement is incorporated and seeks to combine democratic government with military organization. The convalescence of Mrs. Maud Ballington Booth, whose serious illness had been, presumably, attributable in part to the troubles in the Booth family, is announced and causes rejoicing among thousands of friends of the work of the Armies of Salvation.

GEN. WILLIAM BOOTH.

Among several church denominations movements for union constitute the striking feature of the day. A joint commission consisting of three bishops, three ministers, and three laymen from the Methodist Episcopal Church, South, and the same representation from the main body of the Methodist Episcopal Church, met in Washington, D. C., January 7, to consider the question of a federation of both branches. This commission, appointed by and responsible to the General Conferences of the respective Methodist organizations, represented approximately 4,000,000 communicants, one third of this number in the southern connection, two thirds in the northern.

The southern separation from the main branch of the church organized in 1846, differences having arisen over the slavery question. It has the same polity as the main church, and the movement for federation was inaugurated to avoid the overlapping of jurisdictions and the division of Methodist forces in localities where both organizations are at work. As a result of a two days' conference, the joint commission recommended the preparation of a common catechism, hymn-book, and order for public worship for both the churches; the recognition and regulation of the International Epworth League Conference; the joint administration of publishing interests in China and Japan; consideration of cooperative administration of foreign missions, and the prevention of hurtful competition by prohibiting the organization of new work by the other church, in places where either church is established and supplying the needs of the people, without the consent of the bishop having jurisdiction. Transfers of ministers without loss of standing is recommended. The commission further emphasizes the importance of higher education under Christian auspices, and recommends that the claims of the American University at Washington, D. C., be presented in all Methodist churches in order to secure special contributions for it as the new century opens.

A proposition for union is also before the Congregationalists and the Christian Connection, with a membership of about 620,000 and 110,000 respectively. Committees of these two denominations have adopted resolutions, which will be brought before the national representative bodies at meetings to be held this year. Union is recommended on the basis of mutual recognition of the Christian standing of each other's churches and ministers, with no doctrinal test beyond the acceptance of the Bible as the only standard of faith and practice; one name for the highest representative body, such as the General Council of Christian Churches; present organizations, institutions, and usages not to be disturbed; new enterprises or churches to be established under such a name as "Christian," or the equivalent thereof. The committees suggest as cooperative measures that ministerial associations of either body invite

ministers of the other body into full membership; that similar action be taken by local, state, or district conferences for purposes of local fellowship and cooperation without disturbing their existing denominational relations; that state and home mission boards shall not interfere with each other, but jointly promote the interests of the cause of Christ; that transfers from one body to the other be made without impairing membership or good standing; and that delegates chosen to the national councils this year be authorized to act in a general conference of the churches concerned, if advised by the national bodies.

The diplomatic game between governments in the far East is a veritable Chinese puzzle to the far-off observer. It is difficult in Europe to gain accurate knowledge of the moves of diplomats, since there may be diplomatic or stop-jobbing influences behind the despatches. News reaches the United States, in large part, from European capitals, and must be estimated according to the sources. When Sir Michael Hicks-Beach, chancellor of the Exchequer, declared in a public speech that Great Britain would go to war, if necessary, to maintain equal rights of trade in Chinese ports, he struck a popular chord in England and the United States. The declaration was followed by the report that Germany had determined to open the port of Kiao Chou, which she had occupied in territory finally conceded to her by China under a lease for ninety-nine years. Then came the news of a British offer of a loan of $60,000,000 to China, with which that nation might pay the indemnity due to Japan as a result of the late Japan-China War. The published terms of the loan demanded the opening of three new treaty ports, including Ta-Lien-Wan, which lies within the territory contiguous to Port Arthur occupied by Russia. Demands were also made for a declaration that no portion of the Yang-tse-Kiang valley shall be alienated to any other power, and the concession of added British railway rights in Southwestern China. In the event of default China would be required to place certain revenues under the control of the Imperial Customs. Russia is said to have offered to make a loan on similar terms, and the contest between these two great powers for securing the controlling interest at the Chinese capital is the dominating phase of the situation for the moment. The interest of the United States in the Chinese situation is one substantially of commercial character. Our treaty rights in China date back to 1834, and all subsequent negotiations have been based upon the content of the first treaty. That treaty says:

> Citizens of the United States shall in no case be subject to other or higher duties than are or will be required of the people of any other nation whatever, . . . and if any additional advantages and privileges, of whatever description, be conceded hereafter by China to any other nation, the United States and the citizens thereof shall be entitled thereupon to a complete, equal, and impartial participation in the same.

In view of the fact that Russia, at least, has secured railway concessions with special privileges that might constitute discrimination against our trade with Northern China, and that other European governments have shown their desire to obtain exclusive concessions, it is not to be wondered that England's declaration for freedom of trade has been heartily indorsed by American newspapers in the name of American commerce. The best figures obtainable of the amount of our trade with China between 1883 and 1897 show that we have imported on an average about $20,000,000 of goods per year and exported about half that amount. The importance of our interests in the Chinese situation has been recognized by the appointment of Ex-Congressman Edwin H. Conger of Iowa as United States minister to China. Mr. Conger was appointed minister to Brazil by President Harrison and is transferred from that position to China. Charles Page Bryan of Illinois secures the post in Brazil.

Incidental to the turning of the eyes of the world toward the Orient the subject of annexing Hawaii to the United States—a treaty of annexation pending before the Senate of the United States—has been dis-

cussed more than ever. Pres. Sanford B. Dole, of Hawaii, and his wife, on a visit to this country, have been the guests of the government in its official capacity.

So far as the Cuban situation is concerned our policy has contributed several thousand dollars toward the relief of sufferers, upon appeals to the public by the State Department, and the battleship *Maine* has been anchored in the harbor of Havana, with accompanying formal exchanges of naval courtesies between officials.

EDWIN H. CONGER.
United States Minister to China.

PRES. SANFORD B. DOLE, OF HAWAII.

Government statistics of our expanding trade during the calendar year 1897 afford a reasonable basis for national pride. Our exports of merchandise in that year amounted to 1,099 million dollars, exceeding the highest previous record, 1896, by 94 millions. Exports and imports together swell the volume of our total foreign trade for the year to 1,841 millions, a total never reached before in a calendar year and exceeded only in the fiscal year 1892. Imports for the calendar year 1897 amounted to 742 millions, leaving a trade balance in our favor of 357 millions. Adding net exports of silver and gold, the total trade balance amounted to about 390 millions. It might be expected that this condition would result in a movement of gold to this country for settlement of the international account, but to offset this immense credit must be placed the indefinite amounts from sales of American securities formerly held in Europe; money sent abroad to pay interest and dividends on securities; the profits accruing to foreign corporations doing business in this country; the expenditures of American travelers abroad; undervaluation of imports, and the payment of freight to foreign ship-owners for carrying the bulk of our commerce. We sent abroad during the year over 730 million dollars' worth of agricultural produce; of manufactures nearly 280 thousand dollars' worth. In 1899 our manufacturing exports were only 151 millions.

The United States has become the iron center of the world. The production of pig iron in 1897 reached 9,652,680 tons, an increase of 1,029,553 tons over 1896. Our production ran ahead of Great Britain, formerly the greatest iron center, in 1890. In agriculture, the government statisticians report that our wheat production for the year exceeded 530 million bushels, the largest production, except in the year 1891, when nearly 612 million bushels were produced. The corn, oats, and potato crops were considerably smaller than in 1896 or 1895, but we produced of corn, 1,903 million bushels; oats, 699 million bushels; potatoes, 164 million bushels. The cotton crop was so large that the growers have been attempting to limit the production by agreement, in order to save themselves from a condition of things in which prices do not pay the cost of production. Although, according to the latest estimate of the International Statistical Institute, which places the population of the earth at one billion six hundred and twenty million, this country contains only about four per cent of the entire human race, it would appear that we have some right to the claim that the United States is destined soon to become the storehouse of the world.

In the industrial field two important events occurred in January. Bituminous coal operators and miners from Illinois, Ohio, Indiana, Pennsylvania, and West Virginia came to an agreement in Chicago January 28 which affects about three hundred thousand men. By this agreement another strike, like that in which writs of injunction played so sensational a part last year, is avoided, and differences of wage scale in various mining districts are removed as a troublesome factor. The miners obtain through this agreement an advance of ten cents a ton in wages and a uniform working day of eight hours, together with the modification of other alleged abuses. This outcome of differences stands out in sharp contrast to the result of a long-standing struggle between employers and engineers—machinists we would call them—in England. For about six months attempts there to secure an agreement were made without success, and finally the engineers gave up their chief demand for an eight-hour day, although some minor concessions regarding conditions of work, including the right of unions to make collective bargains concerning conditions of employment, were agreed to.

THE LATE MOSES P. HANDY.

The nomination of Attorney Joseph J. McKenna for justice of the Supreme Court was confirmed by the Senate after some delay on January 21. Gov. John W. Griggs of New Jersey has assumed the office of attorney-general, the president of the New Jersey state senate, Foster M. Voorhees, being chosen governor. Among presidential appointments of note are: Owen I. W. Smith of North Carolina, minister to Liberia; Mark S. Brewer of Michigan, ex-congressman and ex-consul-general at Berlin, to succeed William G. Rice of New York as civil service commissioner; Charles D. Buell of New York, in the place of Benjamin Butterworth (deceased), commissioner of patents; George M. Bowers of West Virginia, commissioner of fish and fisheries.

THE LATE BENJAMIN BUTTERWORTH.

The January death list includes: Ernest Hart, editor of the *British Medical Journal;* Mrs. Mary Cowden Clarke, author of a "Concordance to Shakespeare"; Rev. Charles L. Dodgson ("Lewis Carroll"), author of "Alice in Wonderland"; the Right Hon. Pelham Villiers ("Father of the House of Commons"); Rev. Leroy Church, founder of the Baptist organ, *The Standard,* Chicago; Rear-Admiral (retired) D. L. Braine of New York; Jules Emile Peau, eminent French surgeon; Benjamin Butterworth of Ohio, ex-senator, ex-congressman, holding the office of United States commissioner of patents; Moses P. Handy, the head of the Department of Publicity and Promotion for the Chicago Exposition, journalist and editor, and, at the time of his death, special commissioner for the United States in connection with the Paris Exposition of 1900.

C. L. S. C. OUTLINE AND PROGRAMS.

OUTLINE OF REQUIRED READING.

FOR MARCH.

First Week (ending March 4).

"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter IX.

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter VII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Ingenuity of Ants and Wasps."
Sunday Reading for February 27.

Second Week (ending March 11).

"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapters X. and XI.

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter VIII.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Points of a Pilgrimage."
Sunday Reading for March 6.

Third Week (ending March 18).

"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter XII. to page 163.

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter IX.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"Indian Corn in Colonial Times."
Sunday Reading for March 13.

Fourth Week (ending March 25).

"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter XII. concluded and Chapter XIII.

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter X.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The German Army and Navy."
Sunday Reading for March 20.

Fifth Week (ending March 31).

"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapter XIV.

"Roman Life in Pliny's Time." Chapter XI.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Newspaper Post-office at Berlin."
"The Tramp and the Labor Colony in Germany."*
Sunday Reading for March 27.

FOR APRIL.

First Week (ending April 8).

"A Short History of Mediæval Europe." Chapters XV. and XVI.

"Roman and Medieval Art." Chapters I. and II.

In THE CHAUTAUQUAN:

"The Changing Seasons."
Sunday Reading for April 3.

SUGGESTIVE PROGRAMS FOR LOCAL CIRCLE WORK.

FOR MARCH.

First Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Geographical and Historical Study—Sicily.
3. A Paper—The Saracens.
4. General Discussion—The results of absolute freedom of speech.

Second Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. Select Reading—Gen. Lew Wallace's description of the chariot race in "Ben Hur."
3. A Talk—The work of Boniface.
4. An Essay—The capitals of the Patriarchates in the sixth century—Jerusalem, Antioch, Alexandria, Constantinople, and Rome.
5. General Discussion—The events of the week.

Third Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. An Essay—The economic value of maize.
3. A Paper—Gregory VII. and his pontificate.
4. A Biographical Sketch—Julian the Apostate.
5. A Paper—Ogygian Thebes.

Fourth Week.

Frederick II. Day—March 20.

The principle which pervaded Frederick's whole policy was this—that the more severely the army is governed the safer it is to treat the rest of the community with lenity.—*Macaulay.*

1. Biographical Sketch—Frederick II.
2. Select Reading—Extracts from Macaulay's essay "Frederick the Great."
3. A Paper—Maria Theresa and the War of the Austrian Succession.
4. A Paper—The other wars during the reign of Frederick II.
5. A Talk—Frederick II.'s administration of internal affairs.

Fifth Week.

1. The Lesson.
2. A Paper—The catacombs of Rome and Egypt.
3. General Discussion—The tramp problem.*
4. An Essay—Monachism.
5. An Essay—Epicureanism and Stoicism.

FOR APRIL.

First Week.

1. An Essay—Darwin and his theory of evolution.
2. Historical Study—The civil wars of the thirteenth century.
3. A Paper—The republics of Genoa and Venice.
4. An Essay—Etruria and its people.
5. A Talk—The Phenicians and their great colony in Africa.

*See "The Tramp and the Labor Colony in Germany," in the present impression of THE CHAUTAUQUAN.

C. L. S. C. NOTES AND WORD STUDIES.

ON THE REQUIRED READING IN THE TEXT-BOOKS.

"A SHORT HISTORY OF MEDIÆVAL EUROPE."

P. 110. "Gargano" [gär-gä'no]. Mount Gargano forms a promontory which extends into the Adriatic Sea.

P. 111. "Guiscard" [gēs-kär'].

P. 144. "Julian the Apostate." Emperor of Rome from 361 to 363. He was reared in the Christian faith but when he was crowned emperor he declared his conversion to paganism.

P. 145. "Tribur" [trē-boor']. A village of Hesse about five miles southeast of Mainz.

P. 148. "Piacenza" [pē-ä-chen'zä]. A city situated on the Po River in Italy.

P. 151. "Roncaglian plain" [rōn-käl'yän]. The plain of Roncaglia, an Italian town near Piacenza, was a rendezvous of the medieval German emperors and their followers when they journeyed to Rome.

P. 152. "Pataria." A nickname given to the Patarini, a sect in Milan which advocated reform in the church and opposed the marriage of the clergy. It is said that the place of assembling was the Pataria, a rag-gatherers' quarter in medieval Milan, whence the name.

P. 154. "Besançon" [be-zoN-sôN']. The capital of a department of Eastern France.

P. 156. "*Contulimus.*" A Latin word meaning we have conferred, or bestowed, upon.——"*Imposuimus.*" We have imposed, or inflicted, upon.

P. 158. "Paschalis" [pas-kā'lis].

P. 159. "Legnano" [len-yä'nō]. A town eighteen miles northwest of Milan.

P. 161. "Lateran Synod." An ecclesiastical council held in the Lateran Church at Rome and one of the five regarded by the Roman Catholic Church as ecumenical.

P. 165. "Albigenses" [al-bi-jen'sēz]. A name applied to several sects in Southern France during the twelfth and thirteenth centuries. They were quite prominent in Albi, whence their name. A revolt from the Church of Rome resulted in a persecution which caused them almost to disappear by the close of the thirteenth century.

P. 166. "Walther von der Vogelweide" [väl'ter fon der fō'gel-vī-dĕ]. A lyric poet of Germany. He died after 1227.

P. 168. "Brindisi" [brēn'dē-sē]. An Italian seaport situated on the Adriatic coast.

P. 169. "Cortenuova" [kōr-te-noo-ō'va]. An Italian village about thirty miles east of Milan.

P. 189. "Noeldeke" [nöl'dĕh-kĕh]. A German orientalist born in 1836.

P. 191. "Oxus River." The modern Amu-Daria, the principal river of Central Asia. It flows into the Sea of Aral.

P. 206. "Safed" [sä'fed].

P. 211. "Plan Carpin" [kar-peen']. An Italian monk of the thirteenth century.——"Longjumeau" [lôN-zhü-mō']. A town of France a few miles south of Paris.

"ROMAN LIFE IN PLINY'S TIME."

P. 154. "Areius" [a-rī'us].

P. 157. "Elagabalus" [ē-la-gab'a-lus or el-a-ga-bā'lus]. A Roman emperor born about 205 A. D.

P. 168. "Cambacérès" [koN-bä-sā-rās']. A French statesman. He was made arch-chancellor of the empire in 1804.

P. 173. "*Pièces de résistance*" [piās de rā-zēstoNs']. In the culinary art a phrase meaning solid joints; the substantial dishes of a dinner.

P. 178. "Les Femmes Savantes." "The Learned Women."

P. 180. "Corydon" [kor'i-don]. The name often used in pastorals to indicate a shepherd or a rustic.

P. 181. "Pacorus" [pak'o-rus]. A king of Parthia in the time of Domitian and Trajan.

P. 182. "Syene." A town of Egypt situated on the Nile.

P. 186. "Bread and the games." Juvenal in one of his satires says: "Ever since we sold our votes to no one the people have thrown aside all care for state affairs. For that people that once gave away the chief military command, consulship, legions, all, now restrains itself and anxiously desires only two things—bread and the games of the circus."

P. 192. "Velabrum" [ve-lā'brum]. A portion of ancient Rome between the Tiber, the Capitoline, the Palatine, and the Forum Romanum. Until the construction of the Cloaca Maxima (great sewer) it was a marshy area. On the south side of it there was erected in 204 a marble arch in honor of Severus.

P. 194. "Ædile" [ē'dīl]. A Roman magistrate who at first superintended public buildings and lands. Other administrative and police duties were gradually added to his work. Among them was that of promoting the public games.——"Idumæan." From Idumea or Edom, a region south of the Dead Sea.

P. 205. "Beirut" [bā-root']. A Syrian seaport. Beyrout and Bairut are other forms of the same word.

P. 211. "Thetis" and "Galatea" are Nereïds, the daughters of Nereus, a god of the sea.——"Triton,"

the son of Neptune, was one of the lesser divinities of the water.——"Fucinus." A lake in Italy which once covered nearly 38,000 acres. By an artificial subterranean outlet most of the water has been drained off, redeeming many acres of arable land.

P. 212. "Nemesianus" [nē-me-si-ā'nus]. A Roman poet of the third century.——"Ælianus" [ē-li-ā'nus]. A Roman rhetorician living in the second century. One of his works was entitled "De Animalium Natura" ('On the Nature of Animals').——"Appianus." An author living in Rome during the reigns of Trajan, Hadrian, and Antoninus Pius. His history of Rome is a compilation from other historians in twenty-four books, eleven of which are extant.——"Achilles Tatius." A rhetorician of Alexandria who lived in the sixth century.——"Arrianus." A Greek rhetorician who was a citizen of Rome and of Athens. He lived in the second century.——"Jardin des Plantes" [zhärdaN' dā plâNt]. Botanical garden.

P. 213. "Dacian celebration." After conquering Dacia and making it a Roman province, Trajan celebrated the event in 106 by public games at Rome, which continued one hundred and twenty-three days.

P. 219. The "*Commedia dell' arte*" was largely improvised by the professional actors who executed them, only the skeleton of the play being written.

P. 229. "Etruria." A division of ancient Rome which included almost the same territory as modern Tuscany.——"Gades" [gā'dēz]. A western colony of Phenicia founded about 1100 B. C. on a small island off the western coast of Spain. Its site was almost the same as that now occupied by Cadiz.

P. 231. "Crotona" [krō-tō'na]. Cotrona is the name of the modern town located on the same site. It is a seaport town on the coast of the Ionian Sea. The famous Temple of Juno erected in Crotona was damaged by pirates and earthquakes and the single column now standing is a mariner's beacon.

P. 232. "Pontine marshes." A marshy territory, about thirty-one miles long, in southern Latium.——"Cumæ" [kū'mē]. An ancient city about ten miles west of Naples.

P. 233. "Ister." The Latin name of the Danube.——"Strymon." The ancient name of the Karasu River in European Turkey.

P. 236. "Anticyra" [an-tis'i-ra]. An ancient city of Greece situated on the Gulf of Corinth. Hellebore, for the production of which this town is celebrated, was used in ancient times as a remedy for madness.——"Isis." The principal goddess in Egyptian mythology.——"Serapis." An Egyptian god. Canopus, a town about fifteen miles north of Alexandria, was the seat of a shrine and oracle of this deity.——"The mysteries." A religious celebration in honor of Demeter, the goddess of vegetation. At first they resembled modern thanksgiving festivals, but they gradually took on a symbolic meaning which was revealed to none but the initiated. The celebrations took place at Athens and Eleusis, in the latter part of September and the first of October, and free admission to public performances and religious meetings was granted to all except murderers, barbarians, and slaves, and later Epicureans and Christians.——"Aulus Gellius." A grammarian of the second century.——"Pythian games." A national festival of ancient Greece celebrated at Delphi once in four years in honor of Apollo.

P. 237. "Dioscorides" [dī-os-kor'i-dēz]. A physician of Greece.——"Galien" [gä-le-äN']. The French for Galen, a physician and philosopher born in Greece in the second century.

P. 241. "Baiæ" [bā'yē.]——"Antoninus Musa." A famous Roman physician.——"Velia." A city on the southern coast of Italy founded by Ionian colonists.——"Salernum." The same as Salermo, a seaport town of Italy.

P. 242. "Phalantus." The founder of Tarentum.——"Venafrian." Pertaining to Venafrum, an ancient town of the Sumnites celebrated for its olive-oil.——"Aulon." A mountain and valley in Calabria which bore many vines.——"Algidus." A snow-capped mountain on which was a forest, southeast of Rome.——"Valley of Enna." A valley in Sicily where Proserpina, the goddess of vegetation, spent much time with her train of attendants gathering flowers on the slopes of Mt. Ætna.——"Charybdis." A whirlpool on the coast of Sicily. According to a famous myth Charybdis was a monster whose den was beneath a rock near the Sicilian coast, and three times each day she engulfed the water, making a whirlpool of which mariners were afraid.——"Arethusa." A fountain on Ortygia, an island near Syracuse, Sicily, the waters of which were supposed by the ancients to be united with those of the Alpheus River in Greece. An interesting mythological tale relating to Arethusa is to be found in H. A. Guerber's "Myths of Greece and Rome."

P. 244. "Phidias." A Greek sculptor, born about 500 B. C. The statue of Zeus (Jupiter) is his greatest work.——"Aphrodite" [af-rō-dī'tē]. The goddess of beauty, laughter, love, and marriage.

P. 245. "Protesilaus" [prō-tēs-i-lā'us]. According to a Greek legend, the first Greek warrior killed in the Trojan War.

P. 247. "Pallas." The same as Minerva, the goddess of wisdom and of war.——"Julian race." The decendants of the Julia gens, a famous patrician house of ancient Rome.——"Ausonians." The people of Ausonia, the name applied in ancient times to a territory on the borders of Campania and Latium. In poetry the name Ausonia was sometimes used to indicate the Italian peninsula.——"Pergamus." A name applied to the citadel of

Troy. Poets sometimes used the name to indicate the city itself.——"Puteoli." The modern seaport Pozzuoli [pot-soo-ō'lē], a town on the western coast of Italy, near Naples.

P. 251. "Agesilaus" [a-je-si-lā'us]. A Spartan king.——"Mardonius." A Persian general killed at the battle of Platæa.——"Egg of Leda." According to the most common legend Leda brought forth two eggs, from one of which came Helen, and from the other Castor and Pollux.

P. 252. "Ogygian" [ō-jij'i-an]. Belonging to Ogygia, another name for Bœotia, of which Thebes was the principal city. In the mythological tale it is related that Amphion, a king of Thebes, wishing to build a wall around the city, played on his lyre and the stones moved to the rhythmic measure of the music until they were in their proper places.——"Amphiaraus" [am-fi-a-rā'us]. One of the seven who attacked Thebes. Jupiter caused the earth to open and swallow him to save him from his pursuers.——"Eurotas." A river of Greece flowing into the Mediterranean.——"Theseus." A mythical hero of Attica and son of Ægeus, king of Athens. When Theseus set out for Crete to slay the Minotaur he promised to change the black sails for white ones if he was successful. When he returned home after accomplishing his purpose, the father, seeing the black sails still on the ship, thought Theseus was slain and threw himself into the sea, which has since been known as the Ægean Sea.——"Erigone" [ē-rig'ō-ne]. A mythical character, the daughter of Icarius, who shared her gift of wine with shepherds. They, drinking it undiluted, thought themselves poisoned, and therefore killed Icarius and threw his body into a well. Erigone discovered the crime and hanged herself. She was translated to the heavens and placed in a constellation called Virgo.

P. 254. "Anadyomene" [an-a-di-om'e-nē]. From a Greek word which signifies rising. The surname of Venus, which alludes to her origin from the sea-foam.——"Colchian princess." Medea, the wife of Jason, who slew her brother and her own children.——"Iphigenia" [if-i-jē-nī'ä]. The daughter of Agamemnon, whom he offered as a sacrifice to propitiate Artemis. Before she was slain Artemis snatched her away in a cloud and left a deer in her stead.——"Myron." A Greek sculptor who died about 440 B. C.

P. 255. "Borghese Mars" [bor-gā'se]. A statue of the god Mars in the Louvre, Paris.——"Agasias" [a-gas'i-as]. A sculptor who lived about 400 B. C. He produced a statue called "The Fighting Gladiator," which was discovered at Antium in the seventeenth century.

P. 256. "Ischia" [ēs'kē-ä]. An island which belongs to Naples, located about sixteen miles southwest of Naples.——"Capreæ." The ancient name of Capri, an island about twenty miles south of Naples.——"Procida" [prō'chē-da]. An island at the entrance of Naples Bay, about thirteen miles southwest of Naples.

P. 259. "Pœcile" [pē'si-lē].——"Prytaneum" [prit-a-nē'um].——"Vale of Tempe" [tem'pē]. A valley in Thessaly, Greece, celebrated for the wild grandeur of its scenery.

P. 266. "La Quintinie" [la kăN-te-ne']. He lived from 1626 to 1688.——"Dufresny" [dü-frā-nē']. He was born at Paris in 1648 and died there in 1724.

P. 267. "*Quincunx*." The disposition of five objects in a square or rectangle, one object being located at each corner and one in the center.

P. 271. "Galba." Emperor of Rome. He was assassinated in 69 A. D.

P. 276. "Sisyphus" [sis'i-fus]. A mythical king of Corinth who tried to deceive the gods and robbed and murdered travelers. For this misuse of power he was doomed in the lower world to roll a large stone up a steep hill. When the top was reached the stone would slip from his hands and roll to the bottom, thus obliging him constantly to repeat his task.

P. 278. "Werther." A character in Goethe's "Sorrows of Werther," who yielded to melancholy and committed suicide.——"Réné." An aristocrat in Châteaubriand's romance "Réné," who became weary and disgusted with life and withdrew from intercourse with friends.

P. 282. "Subura" [sū-bū'ra]. A valley in ancient Rome drained by the Cloaca Maxima.——"Cælian Hills." The Cælian Hill, one of the seven hills of Rome, and a spur of the hill called Minor Cælius, on the summit of which was a shrine of Diana.——"Celtiberian." Belonging to Celtiberia, a Spanish territory which included the southwestern part of the modern Aragon and a portion of Soria, Cuenca, and Burgos.

P. 294. "Flaminian Way." One of the most famous roads of ancient Rome, built by Flaminius in 220 B. C. It was restored by Augustus, for which triumphal arches in his honor were erected over the road at Rome and Ariminum. Some of the tombs along the road and much of the pavement still exist.

P. 304. "Montaigne" [mon-tān']. A French essayist of the sixteenth century.——"Boétie" [bō-ā-tē']. A French author known principally through his friendship for Montaigne.

P. 310. "Sévigné" [sā-vēn-yā']. A French author of the seveteenth century.

P. 311. "Tillemont" [tēy-môN']. A French historian of the seventeenth century.

QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS.

ON THE C. L. S. C. TEXT-BOOKS.

"A SHORT HISTORY OF MEDIÆVAL EUROPE."

1. Q. When did the Normans obtain possessions in Southern Italy? A. About 1027.

2. Q. What was accomplished by the conquest of Robert Guiscard? A. Sicily and Southern Italy were united into one duchy, thus forming the basis for the kingdom of the Two Sicilies.

3. Q. To what is the term feudalism applied? A. To the economic, social, and political relations and conditions existing in Europe from the tenth to the thirteenth centuries.

4. Q. What are the essential features of feudalism? A. Feudal tenure, vassalage, and immunity.

5. Q. Of what was feudalism the outcome? A. Of the violence and chaos of the ninth and tenth centuries.

6. Q. What was the character of feudalism? A. It was irregular and unsystematic.

7. Q. How was the church affected by feudalism? A. It was completely drawn into feudal relations.

8. Q. What was the one great duty of the lord to his vassal? A. To protect him.

9. Q. Into what classes may feudal society be divided? A. The peasants, the citizens of the towns, and the aristocracy.

10. Q. What custom gave rise to the terms chivalry and chevalier? A. The custom of fighting on horseback.

11. Q. What are some of the causes of the decay of feudalism? A. The invention of gunpowder; the growth of the power of the kings; the growth of cities; the crusades, the pests, and the constant wars.

12. Q. In tracing the growth of the papacy what two subjects must be considered? A. The development of the spiritual authority of the pope and the growth of his power.

13. Q. What offices were held by the bishop of Rome in the fourth century? A. He was bishop of Rome and archbishop or patriarch over the territory about Rome.

14. Q. What theory is regarded as the basis for the supremacy of the bishop of Rome? A. The Petrine theory that the Church of Rome was founded by Peter, the Prince of the Apostles, and having given all his rights, dignity, and supremacy to his successors, they, therefore, were first among all the bishops.

15. Q. What assured the pope his position at the head of the church? A. His success in missionary work in Western Europe.

16. Q. What marks the beginning of the temporal sovereignty of the pope? A. The cession by the Lombards of territory to the pope.

17. Q. What was the final step in the pope's revolt from the eastern emperor? A. Crowning Karl the Great emperor.

18. Q. What decree was an important factor in the process of freeing the papacy from temporal control? A. That seven cardinal bishops, who formed a kind of council to the bishop of Rome, should have the sole right of nominating the pope.

19. Q. What was the position of Gregory VII. in regard to the church and the pope? A. That the church is the kingdom of God and the pope who is at its head has absolute authority over all the world.

20. Q. Did he fully realize his claims? A. No.

21. Q. What was Frederick Barbarossa's policy in regard to Germany? A. To make Germany a state by unifying the government and repressing violence and oppression.

22. Q. What was his ideal as emperor? A. To restore the ancient Roman Empire.

23. Q. How did Hadrian regard the imperial crown? A. As if it were something entirely within his power to give or withhold.

24. Q. What was Frederick's opinion in regard to the subject? A. That the king of Germany had a right to the imperial crown, the pope having the power only to crown him.

25. Q. To guard against disputed elections what decree was issued by the Lateran Synod? A. That any one receiving the votes of two thirds of the cardinals should be regarded as elected to the papacy.

26. Q. Who represents the last and highest stage in the development of the papacy? A. Innocent III.

27. Q. What idea did he seek to establish? A. The supremacy of the pope over all rulers.

28. Q. What was the effect on the papacy of making politics the principal matter during his pontificate? A. The papacy lost spiritual power.

29. Q. In what did the strife between pope and emperor result? A. In the political dismemberment of both Germany and Italy and in increasing the political power of the papacy.

30. Q. What belief forms the philosophic basis of asceticism? A. That matter is the seat of evil, and therefore all contact with it is contaminating.

31. Q. What were the conditions which favored the introduction of asceticism? A. The decay of the empire and the violence succeeding the inva-

sions of the barbarians decreased interest in life and the end of all things seemed to be approaching.

32. Q. When did monks first appear in the West? A. About 340.

33. Q. What vows did Benedict require all monks to take? A. Vows of poverty, chastity, and obedience.

34. Q. How did monasticism benefit Europe? A. It helped to civilize and Christianize Western and Northern Europe.

35. Q. What great work did Mohammed do for the Arabs? A. He united them into a nation which in civilization led the world for nearly three hundred years.

36. Q. By whom was Arabic civilization destroyed? A. By the Turks.

37. Q. What was one of the means by which Mohammedan civilization was introduced into Europe? A. The crusades.

38. Q. What are some of the causes of the failure of the crusades? A. The lawlessness of the crusaders, incompetency of the leaders, the struggle between the German emperors and the popes, the deep interest in commerce, and the difficulty of colonizing such a large territory and of absorbing the Mohammedan population.

39. Q. What was one of the most important results of the crusades? A. The broadening of the intellectual horizon of Europe.

"ROMAN LIFE IN PLINY'S TIME."

1. Q. When did social life begin to develop in Italy? A. With the introduction of Greek manners and literature.

2. Q. At what time did the women begin to enter society? A. During the time of the Gracchi.

3. Q. Under the republic into what three classes did the party chiefs divide their partisans? A. Intimate friends who were invited to the smallest and most exclusive receptions; those who were admitted to larger social gatherings; and those who were allowed to be present only at public functions.

4. Q. At what time did the imperial receptions begin? A. At dawn.

5. Q. What was the required dress at these receptions? A. The *toga*.

6. Q. What feature of modern social life was lacking at these receptions? A. Conversation.

7. Q. What was the character of the great feasts? A. They were exhibitions.

8. Q. Where did private conversation develop? A. In the open air, outside the temples, near the libraries, or in the bookshops.

9. Q. What was the substance of fashionable conversation at Rome? A. Slander and frivolity.

10. Q. What was one great reason for this? A. Politics was a forbidden topic of conversation.

11. Q. What was provided for the diversion of the people? A. The spectacles.

12. Q. After the close of the republic what was the purpose of the games? A. To acquire popularity and power for the party chiefs.

13. Q. What was the general effect of the games on the Roman people? A. Demoralizing.

14. Q. How were the four factions in the games distinguished? A. By the colors white, red, blue, and green.

15. Q. How were the gladiatorial ranks recruited? A. By criminals, prisoners of war, slaves, and volunteers.

16. Q. By what was travel facilitated? A. By the excellent system of roads and the publication of road-books.

17. Q. What idea served as an impulse to travel? A. The idea that Rome had established the unity of the world.

18. Q. By what was the interest of the travelers especially excited? A. By the curiosities and objects of art found in the temples.

19. Q. What did fashion require of its votaries in the summer? A. That they go to some summer resort.

20. Q. What was the character of many of the country-seats? A. Large and elegant villas.

21. Q. By whom was retirement from active life advocated? A. Stoic and Epicurean philosophers.

22. Q. For what is Pliny's information valuable? A. For its accuracy and its seriousness.

THE QUESTION TABLE.

ANSWERS IN NEXT NUMBER.

GERMAN LITERATURE.—VI.

1. To what profession was Gotthold Ephraim Lessing destined by his parents?

2. Where did he acquire his taste for literature and the theater?

3. Which is regarded as the most perfect of his comedies?

4. What effect had Goethe's "Sorrows of Young Werther" ("Leiden des jungen Werther") upon the youth of the country?

5. Which of Goethe's works is an outcome of his travels in Italy?

6. For how long had he studied the subject of "Faust" before the first part was completed?

7. Upon what event in history is the poem "Hermann und Dorothea" founded?

8. When was the friendship between Goethe and Schiller begun?

9. What work of Schiller's was rendered into blank verse by Coleridge, making one of the most perfect translations to be found in our language?

10. Which is the most popular of Schiller's dramas? Of his short poems?

NATURE STUDIES.—VI.

1. How may true wasps be distinguished from wasp-like insects?

2. Into how many and what groups are wasps placed?

3. From their habits what may the different species of solitary wasps be called?

4. What is a distinguishing characteristic of the solitary wasp?

5. What is a common representative of this family?

6. Which group of wasps builds paper nests?

7. What are the two types of these nests?

8. What is the common name for wasps of the genus *Vespa*?

9. In what do social wasps resemble the bumble-bees?

10. Upon what do wasps feed?

GERMAN GEOGRAPHY.

1. What is the largest city of Germany?

2. Upon what river is it situated?

3. How does it rank in size with the cities of the world?

4. Of how many states is the German Empire composed?

5. What are the five largest in area and population?

6. What is the population of the empire?

7. To what three drainage systems does the surface of Germany belong?

8. What are the "Haffs"?

9. What mountain has been immortalized by Goethe?

10. In which part of Germany is it situated?

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS IN "THE CHAUTAUQUAN" FOR FEBRUARY.

NATURE STUDIES.—V.

1. White. 2. Cocoons. 3. They feed the colonies, build the nests, and protect them, and take care of the stock and the young. 4. In the egg state. 5. The Flocculent aphids. 6. In the living state. 7. Size, color, and termination of the tibiæ of the hind legs. 8. The fertilization of plants by carrying pollen from one flower to another. 9. In deserted mouse nests or some dome-shaped hole in the ground. 10. Only the queens.

GERMAN HISTORY.—V.

1. September 20, 1819. 2. A rigorous censorship of the press, a committee for investigating revolutionary intrigues, the suppression of the Burschenschaft (a secret society of the students), and governmental supervision of the universities. 3. The disabled workman receives two thirds of his wages up to four marks a day and then a smaller per cent. 4. Able-bodied Germans between the ages of twenty and forty. 5. Two years for the infantry and three years in the cavalry and horse artillery. 6. By conscription of the sea-faring population. 7. January 1, 1900. 8. 2,359. 9. Subjects pertaining to private rights. 10. Six general systems besides many local laws and customs.

GERMAN LITERATURE.—V.

1. The "Messiah." 2. This work is seldom read at the present time, but the author is honored for the impulse he gave to the national literature. 3. Because of his wit, levity, and irony. 4. "Alceste." 5. They lost the religious tone which earlier characterized his writings. 6. Herder was born at Mohrungen in 1744. He attended the University of Königsberg, was teacher in Riga, pastor at Buckeburg, court chaplain and superintendent of the church district of Weimar, in which place he remained until he died. 7. "Ideas on the Philosophy of the History of Mankind." 8. It is said that not one, perhaps, has reached completion. 9. Schneckenburger. 10. About the year 1840.

CURRENT EVENTS.—V.

1. Of fifteen members each. 2. The members of the Senate are elected by indirect suffrage for six years; the members of the House of Representatives are also elected by indirect suffrage, but for two years only. 3. A senator must own a capital of $3,000 or have an income of $1,200; to qualify for a representative a man must have been a resident of Hawaii for three years and have an income of $600 or own property worth $1,000. 4. He must be twenty years of age and able to read and write the English or the Hawaiian language. 5. Sanford B. Dole; December 31, 1900. 6. For six years by the two houses of the legislature in joint session. 7. He must be a native Hawaiian or have been a resident of the islands for fifteen years. 8. Area 6,640 square miles; population about 105,000. 9. Volcanic. 10. Molokai.

THE C. L. S. C. CLASSES.

1882–1901.

CLASS OF 1898.—"THE LANIERS."

"*The humblest life that lives may be divine.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. G. Anderson, New Haven, Conn.

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Secretary and Treasurer—Mrs. H. S. Anderson, Cleveland, Ohio.

CLASS FLOWER—VIOLET.

A CLASSMATE in a little town in Iowa reports that as he is a clerk in a store where early closing has not been inaugurated his memoranda are a little behind, but his reading well up to the requirements. When this Chautauquan assumes the responsible office of proprietor instead of clerk, we doubt not that he will remember the days of his youth and see to it that his employees have time for Chautauqua.

A RECENT C. L. S. C. graduate sends an interesting record of achievement. She says: "I have just received my diploma from Vassar College, completing the full college course in three years, and at the same time fitting two pupils for college. My previous work in teaching prepared me to do this. I may also say that my C. L. S. C. reading, begun before I entered college, was one of the means which led me to feel that I could without detriment to myself take up a course of study in connection with teaching."

FROM Kansas comes a pleasant word of greeting: "Money could not buy the pleasure and profit the work has given me during the past two years. Such an inspiration as it has been to a mother of three children who are all attending school and full of questions in history, literature, and current events!"

CLASS OF 1899.—"THE PATRIOTS."

"*Fidelity, Fraternity.*"

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CLASS EMBLEM—THE FLAG.

CLASS COLOR—BLUE.

CLASS FLOWER—THE FERN.

This little hour of life, this lean to-day—
What were it worth but for those mighty dreams
That sweep down from the past on sounding streams
Of such high-thoughted words as poets say!

—*Sill.*

THE genuine "Patriot" believes in high thinking. It was thought that nerved the arms of the men who

fired the shot heard round the world,

and every '99 who stands for that pure high-mindedness which is the greatest force that the world knows is a patriot in the truest sense.

CLASS OF 1900.—"THE NINETEENTH CENTURY CLASS."

"*Faith in the God of truth; hope for the unfolding centuries; charity toward all endeavor.*"

"*Licht, Liebe, Leben.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. Nathaniel I. Rubinkam, Chicago, Ill.

Vice Presidents—Rev. John A. McKamy, Louisville, Ky.; Rev. Duncan Cameron, Canisteo, N. Y.; J. F. Hunt, Chautauqua, N. Y.; Morris A. Green, Pittsburg, Pa.

Secretary and Treasurer.—Miss Mabel Campbell, 53 Younglove Ave., Cohoes, N. Y.

CLASS EMBLEM—EVERGREEN.

IN the reports received from circles and readers in '96–97, a great diversity of opinion was shown upon the interest to be found in the different subjects studied. Perhaps no subject seems quite so hopeless to some, or so delightful to others, as the study of art. Yet it ought not to seem foreign to any thoughtful man or woman, for the art of a people is so closely allied to their history that one cannot study the one without learning the deeper significance of the other. Members of the class who thought last year that they had no special aptitude for Greek art, and were consequently somewhat discouraged with their attempt to master something of its technique, are urged to throw renewed energy into the study of the art of Rome and medieval Europe. We are sure that the unconscious influence of last year's work will bear fruit in a still further opening up of this delightful and truly profitable study.

APROPOS of this subject we quote from the letter of an enthusiastic Chautauquan, who says: "I have enjoyed the reading immensely. I began it when life seemed very desolate and it occupied my thoughts and my time. I knew nothing of the history of art, but the start I received then, supple-

mented by other reading, lectures, and a European trip, has opened up a new world to me."

CLASS OF 1901—"THE TWENTIETH CENTURY CLASS."

"*Light, Love, Life.*"

OFFICERS.

President—Dr. W. S. Bainbridge, New York, N. Y.

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Secretary and Treasurer—Miss Harriet Barse, 1301 Brooklyn Ave., Kansas City, Mo.

CLASS FLOWER—COREOPSIS.

CLASS EMBLEM—THE PALM.

ONE of last year's books, "A Survey of Greek Civilization," has found its way to Helsingfors, Finland, and suggested an adaptation of the C. L. S. C. work to that country. In a letter from the professor of the Greek language in the University of Helsingfors, the writer says: "I shall be very thankful for information regarding your organization. Perhaps we can establish something similar here in Finland. One difficulty confronts us here and that is that we use two languages, the Finnish and the Swedish; but we who speak Swedish can find what we need in Sweden. We have already introduced from England the University Extension idea, and it will be still more effective when we can give more extended direction to the work of the people, as in the case of your society."

A RECENT letter from a member of the class voices the experience common to many who are now active members of the 1901's or of some other of the undergraduate classes: "We had always thought that we did not have time for this course, but we have begun and are delighted. 'Imperial Germany' is superb and THE CHAUTAUQUAN a constant source of pleasure."

ANOTHER interesting letter, this from a prospective classmate, presents a very different point of view: "I read a portion of one year's course some years ago, with great profit. I was then living alone in a shanty in the woods, chopping cord-wood and ditching. The mental and moral stimulus derived from that few months' reading have helped me to advance very materially, and though circumstances compelled me to drop out, I now feel like again taking some course of reading."

THE president of the Class of 1901, who has been studying in Germany for some months past, sends a letter of greeting to his distant classmates. He writes:

"In spite of the many things which surround me, which are of absorbing interest, I have my set of C. L. S. C. books at hand, and THE CHAUTAUQUAN follows me regularly. Really, 'Imperial Germany' is almost as essential as is Baedeker to any one who wishes to come into touch with Germany and her past life, as well as her present position in the world. I have met a number of persons interested in Chautauqua and its great work. Others have been glad to hear of this typical American institution. I am glad that our room in the Class Building is to be ready for next season. With best wishes for the new year, believe me

"Cordially yours,

"William Seamans Bainbridge."

GRADUATE CLASSES.

A STEADY interest in special courses of study is evident this year among the members of the S. H. G. It is gratifying to note the tendency toward thoroughness of work exhibited upon the part of most of these students. Such a plan as Miss Hale's "Reading Journey Through England" means that the reader not only greatly enlarges his general acquaintance with English history and literature, but also gives to that knowledge the benefit of close association with the places where the events took place, which can only be gained by those who either visit a country for themselves or who know it so well through pen and picture that it is real to them. Those who can in this way travel over England, Baedeker in hand, under Miss Hale's delightful guidance, are to be congratulated upon the pleasure before them.

STUDENTS of the various special courses in Shakespeare will be interested in a Shakespeare game which has been devised by a club in Maine. The secretary of the club is a member of the C. L. S. C. Class of 1900 and writes of the pleasure and help which they have found in this plan. The game consists of a series of cards including questions and quotations upon characters and upon the various plays. It has already proven very popular and will form a welcome addition to the list of historical and biographical games which have been used by many circles. Full information may be secured upon application to Miss Jessica Lewis, Camden, Me.

THE growth of the settlement idea in all our great cities is both a cause and a result of the increasing demand for careful scientific study of social problems. Many readers of Professor Henderson's "The Social Spirit in America" will be glad to know that a special course in sociology is included in the C. L. S. C. supplementary courses and that a pamphlet of helpful suggestions will be furnished for the usual fee of fifty cents to those who want to enter upon a closer study of this nobly humanitarian subject.

COPIES of the Guild souvenir may be obtained by sending twenty-five cents to the secretary, Miss Annie H. Gardner, 106 Chandler Street, Boston, Mass.

LOCAL CIRCLES.

C. L. S. C. MOTTOES.

"*We Study the Word and the Works of God.*" "*Let us Keep our Heavenly Father in the Midst.*"
"*Never be Discouraged.*"

C. L. S. C. MEMORIAL DAYS.

OPENING DAY—October 1.
BRYANT DAY—November, second Sunday.
MILTON DAY—December 9.
COLLEGE DAY—January, last Thursday.
LANIER DAY—February 3.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—February, second Sunday.
LONGFELLOW DAY—February 27.
SHAKESPEARE DAY—April 23.
ADDISON DAY—May 1.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—May, second Sunday.
SPECIAL SUNDAY—July, second Sunday.
INAUGURATION DAY—August, first Saturday after first Tuesday.
ST. PAUL'S DAY—August, second Saturday after first Tuesday.

SPECIAL MEMORIAL DAYS FOR 1897–98.

WILLIAM I. DAY—October 25.
BISMARCK DAY—November 16.
MOLTKE DAY—December 3.
PLINY DAY—January 23.
JUSTINIAN DAY—February 10.
FREDERICK II. DAY—March 20.
MOHAMMED DAY—April 3.
NICCOLO PISANO DAY—May 28.

CHAUTAUQUA WORK IN PRISONS.

FROM the state prison at Stillwater, Minn., is received the following interesting paper written by one of the inmates:

"The thought has recently suggested itself to me that a great field for doing an untold good is open to all those who have the uplifting of mankind at heart, and especially those who are engaged in fostering the interests of Chautauqua work, by introducing it into all the penal institutions throughout the country. Perhaps it will be well to state that my reasons for suggesting this plan are based upon a practical knowledge and personal observation wherein the work has been thoroughly tested.

"In June, 1890, was organized the Pierian Chautauqua Circle, and the fact that it has maintained an organization and kept up an interest shows that it has not been a failure; on the contrary, it has been a decided success from the first, and to-day it has its limit of membership thirty-six, while others are waiting for vacancies to occur. The membership has averaged over thirty since the organization, and not less than one hundred and fifty men have been helped. The fact is that these men have been doubly benefited, and let me show wherein this is true. First, there is the same benefit that all Chautauqua readers receive—those who search for the truths such as are found in Chautauqua studies. But more particularly is this helpful to men thus incarcerated, because it keeps their minds employed; it makes thinkers of them—and after all it is the thinkers who make the shining marks in life. The second benefit is one that only those who are thus deprived of their liberty can receive—it works for the man's reformation, so that when he goes out into the world again the teachings of Chautauqua are a good and safe companion to take with him, no matter where he goes.

"More than one hundred members of this circle have been discharged from the institution, and we have to record only two or three instances where any of them have found their way back again. Covering as this does a period of seven years and a half, it is most remarkable. The parole system is in operation here, and many of the Chautauqua members are thus released, which shows that their conduct merits it, and in only one instance has a Chautauqua member broken his parole.

"The grade system is also in vogue, and when a man by misconduct loses his grade standing he also loses his privileges, and in only one instance during the past year has the circle lost a member from such a cause. These facts are stated that a more distinct idea may be gained of the claim that it works for the man's reformation.

"Now let us turn for a moment to the question of how an interest is maintained; and first I will say that we have the earnest, hearty support of the management—a thing that would be necessary no matter where it was given a trial. We are granted all the privileges that it is possible to extend to men under like circumstances. We select our own officers of the circle, make our own by-laws, rules of government, and order of business, arrange our program and all the little details that go to make up every well-organized body. Our constitution and by-laws are written with a view of defining clearly each one's duty, and while we are very strict in the observance of our rules yet we can afford to be; therein lies our strength. For instance, a member is notified to write a paper on the subject of his current studies, and there is no appeal or excuse (except sickness). If he fails his name is at once stricken from the rolls; and while we lose a member now and then from that cause we find it is best to 'hew to the line and let the chips fall where they may.' Of course circles composed of business men and busy housekeepers could not do that.

but with us we find that no man is going to sever his connection with our circle through any neglect of his own if he studies his own interest. Our program is arranged by selecting three members each meeting to write papers on the studies for next meeting and a volunteer is called for to write one paper on some subject of his own choosing, so that gives us four papers each meeting. Then we have plenty of music, vocal and instrumental, interspersed with addresses, recitations, and a ten-minute debate by two members, previously chosen, on some popular theme of the day. That our meetings are intensely interesting is evidenced by the fact that we frequently have numerous visitors in to hear us. Our papers are often published in the press and are widely copied, which speaks well for their high character. That we are doing some earnest, straightforward work on the correct lines is best known, perhaps, to the executive officers of the C. L. S. C., whose earnest support we have always enjoyed.

"If such good results can be gotten out of an institution where only five hundred men are confined, small in proportion to some others in the country of a like character, does it not look reasonable to suppose that the same results can be obtained elsewhere? At Sing Sing, Columbus, Joliet, and Jefferson City, each containing four times as many as are here, doesn't it look reasonable to suppose that a circle of one hundred members in each place can be maintained with equally good results?

"To one who has given the subject a careful study, one who has the misfortune and good fortune to speak from experience, it seems that it can, and the earnest hope is expressed that those engaged in the upbuilding of Chautauqua, as well as those who feel an interest in the future welfare of unfortunate brother-men, and desire to confer on them a far-reaching benefit, will earnestly strive to have such a result consummated."

NEW CIRCLES.

WEST INDIES.—A greeting for the new year to all Chautauquans comes from a faithful member at Jamaica. The circle of which she is a member is composed of several families, who take turns in reading the books and magazine and meet when they can to discuss the subjects. They are interested withal, and will make a strong circle.

MAINE.—The secretary of the circle at East Corinth reports the following: "The Corinthian Club, a Chautauqua society for the joint study of current history and literature, was organized at East Corinth October 23, 1897, and has now a membership of twenty-three. The meetings are held on alternate Saturdays at the homes of the members." At the second meeting the following program was carried out:

ROLL-CALL	Quotations about Autumn
PAPER	Prospects in Alaska
READING	Selection from "Evangeline"
PAPER	Some Facts about India
READING	"Last Walk in Autumn"
PAPER	The Outlook for Cuba
READING	"Death of the Flowers"

VERMONT.—The eight who compose the circle at Charlotte hope to increase the number to ten.

RHODE ISLAND.—It is not an easy thing to "catch up" after beginning late in the year, but that it can be done is proved by the work of the circle at Auburn. The secretary writes: "At our last meeting we decided on the name 'Auburn Vincent Circle' for our branch of C. L. S. C. Our efforts thus far have been to 'catch up' in our reading, but having accomplished this we are prepared to commence the new year 'according to rule.' Our membership is still ten, but we have hope of others. We have continually to remind ourselves of the motto, 'Never be discouraged,' but we will persevere."

NEW YORK.—Two members of '98 from Mapleton and one from Fleming send their annual dues and report a circle of associate members numbering about forty.——A strong force of fifteen at Le Roy have started the year in a commendable manner and are sure of success.

NEW JERSEY.—A well-organized circle of '01's at Little Falls have chosen efficient officers and are making progress in their work.——New names are enrolled from Montclair.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Two local papers give complimentary reports of the organization in November of a circle at Lebanon. The first meeting, held at "Meadow Bank," the home of one of the members, was taken up chiefly with the discussion of plans and the subjects to be studied. Seventeen members are already enrolled, but it was decided to limit the number to twenty-five, and if it exceeds that number a new circle will be formed. They will be known as "The Twentieth Century Club."——The Light-bearers of Pittsburg meet every other week. A new feature of the meetings is a question box, and besides this each member is to give some quotation at each roll-call. This circle has fourteen members, which will be the limit.

ALABAMA.—Fifteen names are registered in the Selma Circle.

OHIO.—Maria G. Wilds, Walnut Hills, a member of the Class of 1901, died at her home on December 13. The bereaved family and friends have the sincerest sympathy of the entire class.

INDIANA.—Several old members, with some new ones, are doing circle work at Indianapolis.——Six graduates at Elwood think of organizing a Society of the Hall in the Grove.

ILLINOIS.—An effort is being made to establish a circle in the Epworth League of Grace Church,

Chicago. An announcement of the aims of the C. L. S. C. and the books used in the course this year is printed on the information cards of the League.——A circle of ten at Danville has only one name registered at the central office, but we hope the work will be so attractive that all will wish to become members of the organization.

MICHIGAN.—A number of social events have served to enliven the work of the circle at Litchfield. They have taken part in a Russian tea, an oyster supper, and a sleigh-ride, and on the completion of the German book will have a German ghost party.

MINNESOTA.—"The Twentieth Century Class of Windom" is the name chosen by the eleven who are giving attention to the work in that place.

IOWA.—Membership fees are received from Cambridge, and although the circle is somewhat behind with the reading they will doubtless make up the work during the year.

OREGON.—A membership of fifteen makes a very efficient circle at Salem, who have named themselves "The Twentieth Century Chautauqua Circle."——A membership of twenty-five makes the work of the Abernathy Circle, Oregon City, interesting and profitable.

WASHINGTON.—A wide-awake organizer reports ten names in a class at Ridgefield.

OLD CIRCLES.

MAINE.—"The books for the year '97-98 give good satisfaction," says the secretary of the thriving circle at Livermore Falls.

NEW HAMPSHIRE.—Two new names are noticed among the Chautauquans at New Hampton, and the old members are alive to the interests of the work.

VERMONT.—The Class of 1900 is well represented in the circle at Burlington.

MASSACHUSETTS.—Loyal readers and good meetings make the work of the circle at Springfield of sustaining interest.

CONNECTICUT.—The Nutmeg Circle of New Haven will be a great success, according to the reports from the friends and members of the class.

NEW YORK.—Friday evening is the night chosen by the readers at Stockton for their meetings.—— The secretary of the Alumni Association of Syracuse gives an encouraging report of her work and mentions a letter received recently in which a young man of the Class of '88, now in the university at Syracuse, says, "My first inspiration to get an education came from reading the C. L. S. C. course," and many others can bear like testimony to Chautauqua's influence.——A home circle at Jamestown, of the Class of 1899, will be ready to graduate with their class.——An entertaining report is received from the secretary of the circle at Geneva. The meetings are held Monday evenings, with an average attendance of ten, when a report of the previous meeting is read, papers of unusual excellence are submitted, and numerous questions asked. They have had two pleasant gatherings to which their friends were invited, and on these occasions special programs have been prepared and dainty souvenirs given the guests.——Several names are recorded from Brooklyn.

NEW JERSEY.——Encouraging news comes from the readers at Boonton.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The efficient secretary of the Pittston Circle sends the following interesting report: "The existence of the West Pittston Chautauqua Circle is probably not known to the general circle, but we do exist and are altogether alive. On the first Monday of October, 1896, we organized with a membership of barely ten; today we number more than a score. Week by week the meetings grow more interesting. This year we have appointed committees who prepare in advance a three months' calendar of work. These are type-written and distributed among the members. We find that the plan arouses interest and assures preparation. A representative evening was one spent recently among German composers." On this occasion the following program was carried out:

IN THE REALM OF MUSIC.

RESPONSES....."Music."....
PIANO DUET.....Overture to "Don Juan"..... *Mozart*
PAPER...."German Opera," with musical illustrations.....
PIANO TERZET..Gavotte from "Iphigenie in Aulis"..... *Gluck*
PIANO SOLO.....Minuet from "Don Juan"..... *Mozart*
PIANO SOLO.....Aria from "Fidelio"..... *Beethoven*
VOCAL SOLO....(*a*) Overture from "Freischutz"....
PIANO SOLO....(*b*) Bridal and Hunters' Chorus from "Freischutz"..... } *Weber*
PIANO SOLO.....(*a*) Nocturne from "Midsummer Night's Dream"..... } *Mendelssohn*
PIANO TERZET....(*b*) Wedding March from "Midsummer Night's Dream"..... } *Mendelssohn*
PIANO SOLO....."Song to the Evening Star" from "Tannhäuser"..... *Wagner*
READING....."Moonlight Sonata."
MUSIC....."Moonlight Sonata"..... *Beethoven*
READING....."The Swan Song."
MUSIC....."The Swan Song"..... *Blumenthal*

——"The circle at Scranton is still large, its membership numbering seventy-seven, and its biweekly meetings are marked by much enthusiasm and earnestness. The interest is made more intense by the encouragement of a pleasant rivalry on the part of the two divisions of the circle, generaled respectively by the two vice-presidents, the divisions furnishing the program alternately. The exercises are conducted by the president as follows: Opening, singing of a verse of a patriotic hymn, roll-call, the members responding with quotations from designated authors, current topics, etc., in accordance with the order of the evening, papers, addresses, and discussions (which have been invariably strong), in-

terspersed with music of a very high order and closing with questions from the question box. Following the literary part of the program comes the social, which is enhanced in pleasantness by the occasional appearance of light refreshments. The interest continues unabated and it is evident that great good will result from so flourishing an organization."——Strong circles are found at Coudersport, Orwigsburg, and Steelton.

GEORGIA.—"The Chautauquans at Demorest send greetings to their fellow-workers and comrades. We are not large in numbers but in interest and faithful endeavor we feel that we are not excelled by any." The secretary also reports that plans are making for the Northeast Georgia Assembly to be held in August.——Faithful work is done at Columbus.

ALABAMA.—The circle at Mobile is reorganized. ——Enthusiastic meetings are held by the members at Troy.

OHIO.—Each member in the circle at Howenstine speaks to his friends about the Chautauqua readings, thus keeping the work alive in their midst.—— Names are enrolled from Sidney, Dresden, and Gervais.

INDIANA.—The post-graduate members are a great help to the readers of Knightstown. Five of the members graduate this year and hope to pass through the golden gate. Every one takes active part in the work and the circle prospers accordingly.

MINNESOTA.—Chautauqua spirit abounds in the circle at Blue Earth City.——Perseverance characterizes the readers at Buffalo and Albert Lea.

IOWA.—The union meetings of Des Moines Chautauquans are of wonderful benefit to those who attend them. The Eaton Circle, only recently organized, had charge of one of the recent meetings, the chief features being a talk on Germany by a lady who has spent several years abroad, and an interesting talk on astronomy by the president of Eaton Circle.——Circles report from Tripoli, Manchester, and Waterloo.

MISSOURI.—Alpha Circle of Marshall is doing good work this year, and the limit of thirty members is already reached.

KANSAS.—Five new members swell the ranks of the F. W. Gunsaulus Circle, Kansas City.——Strict attention to business is the motto of Historic City Circle, Lawrence.——Chautauqua has a firm foothold in Junction City.——"The Cherokee C. L. S. C. held its annual banquet January 3, at the home of Mrs. Chadsey. Each member was privileged to bring one guest and over thirty were present. There was an interesting program of charades, music, and recitations, with an X-ray exhibition. The supper table left nothing to be desired either in choice of viands or daintiness of serving. But two toasts were given. Reverend Pingrey portrayed the marvelous future opening before the American cities and the Anglo-Saxon race, and Dr. Graves, but recently returned from several months in Europe, gave a very interesting talk about German cities, speaking especially of those matters of interest to Chautauquans this year. A collection of excellent photographs added to the interest and brought the scenes he described very vividly before our eyes. Our circle hopes soon to have a parlor lecture from Dr. Graves on Rome and Italian cities. We have sixteen members and are doing thorough work."

CALIFORNIA.—Circles at Downey and Sacramento are doing their work with encouraging results.

THE FLORIDA CHAUTAUQUA.

THE fourteenth annual session of this famous winter Assembly will open in its home, DeFuniak Springs, Florida, February 17 and continue five weeks. This enterprise is becoming so well known to the people of all sections of the country that a description of its beauties is no longer necessary. The charming lake, the salubrious climate, the delightful social surroundings, fine hotel and cottage accommodations, and attractive Chautauqua program are all that could be desired. Here profit and recreation are happily combined.

Dr. W. L. Davidson, the well-known Chautauqua manager, has planned a program of rare excellence, and the patronage will undoubtedly be very large. A dozen departments of important school work will be in the hands of capable teachers. Music will be furnished by Rogers' Goshen Band and Orchestra, the Eastern Star Ladies Quartet, the C. M. Parker Concert Co., E. Franceau, the male soprano, Miss Helen Grimes and Mme. C. E. Bailey, soloists, Milo Deyo, the famous piano soloist, and two violin soloists. The Assembly chorus will be directed by Mr. Harry J. Fellows, and Mr. Henry B. Vincent has been engaged as accompanist. Edwin L. Barker, C. Montaville Flowers, Prof. E. B. Warman, Mrs. Mercedes Leigh, and Mrs. Birdie Sprague Waggoner are among the impersonators and readers. There will be illustrated lectures by S. A. Thompson and Dr. Egerton R. Young, and feats of magic by W. A. McCormick. The cineograph, with its wonderful moving pictures, and the newest and best talking machine, the gramophone, are to be among the attractions. The lecture platform includes Rev. Sam P. Jones, Rev. Madison C. Peters, Rev. J. Wesley Hill, Rev. Paul C. Curnick, Pres. H. A. Gobin, Rev. H. Clay Furgerson, Rev. C. C. Albertson, Rev. W. V. Dick, Rev. A. E. Craig, ex-Gov. Will Cumback, Dr. John H. Bickford, Edward Page Gaston, Judge J. J. Banks, and a host of others equally well known. Reduced railroad rates can be secured. The beautiful detailed illustrated program can be procured of the secretary, N. Colver, DeFuniak Springs, Fla.

TALK ABOUT BOOKS.

The Life of Gladstone.

There is no statesman in the whole field of European politics who so calls forth the admiration and respect of both friends and political antagonists as does the Right Hon. William E. Gladstone. The story of his life* as told by Justin McCarthy shows that his early home training and his educational advantages were excellent preparations for the part he afterward played in public affairs. In giving an account of his long and useful career in the English Parliament the able author has made every incident related essential to the revelation of Gladstone's character. Incidentally he has given the reader some information concerning England's political history and many of her eminent politicians. Gladstone's attitude toward the various subjects discussed in Parliament and his motives for certain acts Mr. McCarthy has explained in a clear, forcible way, frequently quoting the eminent statesman's own words in proof of his statements. The subject and the terse, yet bright, literary style of the author make this a biographical sketch of unusual interest. The publishers also have spared no pains in making this a most attractive volume. It contains about a dozen full-page illustrations, besides a large number of smaller ones in the text, and the printing has been done in large, clear type on heavy paper. The covers are red, handsomely ornamented in gold—fit casing for so valuable a work.

The Old Santa Fé Trail.

A volume which reads like a veritable romance is the story of a great western highway, the Santa Fé trail.† It is told by Col. Henry Inman, formerly an army officer, "who," says Buffalo Bill in the preface, "had personal knowledge of many of the thrilling scenes that were enacted along the great route." And he has told the story well, using a pleasant, easy style which makes the recital a vivid reproduction of the events of the early days in the West. Following an introductory chapter on the early explorations of this section of the Union by Europeans is a chapter in which old Santa Fé and Santa Fé of the present time are described. Then the main subject of the book is taken up. The author describes the early modes of travel, relates experiences of hunters, and tells of many expeditions across the plains, some undertaken by private parties and others by military troops to assist in the Mexican War and other struggles. Many amusing incidents are related in the course of the recital, but the reader is deeply impressed with the fact that extreme hardships were endured and many tragedies enacted before the present-day civilization was possible in that section of the country. The illustrators have aided in making this a valuable record of a condition which no longer exists.

Religious.

The present volume of Dr. S. R. Driver's contribution to the International Theological Library is a revised and enlarged edition of "An Introduction to the Literature of the Old Testament,"* in which the author makes an analytical study of the different books of the Old Testament. Into the text of this edition has been incorporated the contents of the appendix of a previous edition, with additional notes on the advancement made in a critical study of the Old Testament. Very complete biographical notes precede each chapter and an index of the many words and phrases explained is added to the volume. It is a work which critical students should possess.

A series of lectures delivered before the students of Union Theological Seminary furnishes the contents for a volume entitled "The Bible and Islam."† In these lectures the author discusses in a clear, cogent manner the influence of the Bible on Mohammed and his teachings. He shows by citations from the Koran that Mohammed taught monotheism, revelation, salvation by faith, and a future judgment, and arguments are used to prove that the Bible and Christianity were influences in molding his ideas of God and religion which fell short of the Christian's conception.

A volume called "The Ideal Life"‡ contains addresses by Henry Drummond which are now published for the first time. By his simple, straightforward style the author has made his words reflect the deep and convincing truths to be found in the Holy Scriptures. Ian Maclaren and W. Robertson Nicoll are the writers of the introduction, both parts of which are fine tributes to the memory of a noble man.

Of the many books which deal with the teachings of Christ few can have greater interest for practical Christian workers than that which sets forth Christ's teaching on sociological subjects. Such a book is

* The Story of Gladstone's Life. By Justin McCarthy. 436 pp. $6.00.——† The Old Santa Fé Trail. By Colonel Henry Inman. 509 pp. $3.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

* An Introduction to the Literature of the Old Testament. By S. R. Driver, D.D. 609 pp. $2.50 net.——† The Bible and Islam. By Henry Preserved Smith, D.D. 319 pp. $1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‡ The Ideal Life. By Henry Drummond. With memorial sketches by Ian Maclaren and W. Robertson Nicoll. 320 pp. $1.50. New York: Dodd, Mead and Company.

"The Social Teaching of Jesus,"* by Shailer Mathews, A.M. It is a valuable contribution to the literature on Christian sociology, a term which the author defines as "the sociology of Christ." A careful, critical study of the Gospels is suggested as the only proper method of learning Christ's teaching, and by this method the author proceeds to explain what he finds relative to sociology in Christ's words, in the Gospel narratives, and in the fact of Christ's silence on certain subjects.

A series of lectures by Rev. George H. Trever delivered at Lawrence University, Wisconsin, have been published under the title "Studies in Comparative Theology."† The Vedic religion, Buddhism, Zoroastrianism, the Jewish and Egyptian religions, and the Gospel of Christ are carefully presented and the superiority and force of the latter fully set forth.

In "A Harmony of the Books of Samuel, Kings and Chronicles"‡ Rev. William D. Crockett has given to Bible students an analysis of those books of the Old Testament. The volume is divided into five parts. The first, which is largely genealogical in character, closes with a summary of Samuel's work as judge. The reigns of Saul, David, and Solomon, and the history of the kingdoms of Judah and Israel are subjects of the other divisions. Parallel passages are printed on the same page for convenience of reference, and in an appendix there is a table showing what passages in different parts of the Bible are in harmony with certain parts of this work. The text of the version of 1884 has been used.

"The Culture of Christian Manhood"‖ is the title of a volume which contains addresses and sermons delivered in Battell Chapel, Yale University, by some of America's eminent pulpit orators. Portraits of the speakers are included in the volume, which has been edited by William H. Sallmon.

Lullaby-Land. It is more than two years since the death of Eugene Field, "the child-hearted poet" of Emily Huntington Miller's tender verse; but the world hails the new collection of his poems, "Lullaby-Land," as eagerly as if he were still in our midst—he who now

> In some happy garden of blossoms and dreams
> Wanders with Little Boy Blue.

For, unlike the child's forsaken toys, which gathered mold and rust with time, these gentle poems which were the playthings of the man's heart and mind will be always fresh and new to their readers, no matter how many generations of murky little fingers turn their pages or how many myriads of grief-dimmed eyes drop tears upon their lines. The key-note of childhood rings ever the same, and none has had an ear more finely attuned to its witching cadences than "the strong, sweet singer" to whose rollicking muse calico cats and gingerbread dogs, the Dinkey-Bird, and the Shut-Eye Train were as serious and as real as are the relentless facts against which we grosser mortals beat our too realistic brains. Few, too, have been able to join so buoyantly in these ingenuous thought-gambols as our good friend Kenneth Grahame, who prefaces this volume with six pages of his quaint cogitations, launching us at once, big-eyed as any wee Amber-Locks, into the realm which he has named "the golden age," where, clear to his vision, dance the sprites of baby-life (albeit such thoroughly English sprites as not to know "the American for booking-office"!). Whoso follows these two child-lovers across the dim border of "Lullaby-Land"* will catch with unforgetable sweetness the murmurous plashing of the fount of exhaustless youth.

Fiction. A short piece of fiction is "A Capital Courtship,"† by Alexander Black. In its present form it is a series of word-pictures deftly connected and skilfully drawn. There is just enough of the disagreeable in the series to make that which is attractive stand out in a clear light. A number of excellent illustrations are a part of the contents, among them being pictures of several of Washington's prominent people.

Experiences which do not come to the young people of to-day are delineated in a short story‡ by Marion Harland. According to this author the life of a schoolgirl or a schoolboy in the old-field schools of Virginia in early days was not altogether pleasant. Sometimes the schoolmaster was diabolically cruel, wreaking his vengeance on the innocent. Such a fiend is the one portrayed by the author, and the recital of his deeds reads like a story of the Dark Ages.

"Fabius the Roman"‖ is the subject of a story by Rev. E. Fitch Burr, in which historical events are

* The Social Teaching of Jesus. By Shailer Mathews, A.M. 235 pp. $1.50. New York: The Macmillan Company.

† Studies in Comparative Theology. Six Lectures. Delivered by Rev. George H. Trever, Ph.D., D.D. 425 pp. $1.20. New York: Eaton & Mains; Cincinnati: Curts & Jennings.

‡ A Harmony of the Books of Samuel, Kings, and Chronicles. By William Day Crockett, A.M. With an introduction by Willis Judson Beecher, D.D. 365 pp. $2.00. New York: Eaton & Mains.

‖ The Culture of Christian Manhood. Edited by William H. Sallmon. With portraits of authors. 309 pp. $1.50. New York and Chicago: Fleming H. Revell Company.

* Lullaby-Land. Songs of Childhood. By Eugene Field. Selected by Kenneth Grahame and illustrated by Charles Robinson. 229 pp. $1.50. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

† A Capital Courtship. By Alexander Black. With seventeen illustrations from life photographs by the author. 104 pp. $1.00.——‡ An Old-Field School-Girl. By Marion Harland. Illustrated. 208 pp. $1.25. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons.

‖ Fabius the Roman, or How the Church Became Militant. By Rev. E. Fitch Burr, D.D., LL.D. 388 pp. New York: The Baker and Taylor Company.

prominently set forth. The city of Rome in 312 A. D. is the place of the action and Maxentian is the emperor. His attitude toward the Christians, the customs of court life, the appearance of the ancient city, and the entrance of Constantine into Rome are incidents which the author has described. A slender thread of romance has been woven into this chain of events, thus brightening an otherwise somber tale.

Should a married woman be engaged in a profession outside her most useful sphere of home-making? This is a question with which Miss Cara Reese deals in a short story called "'And She Got All That.'"* In this story the wife of a mill-hand, who feels that her sphere of action is too narrow and wishes to increase the yearly income, leaves her home and becomes a trained nurse. The effect of her decision upon herself, her child, and her husband is vividly depicted, and an interesting story is the result.

An ignorant, scheming mother, a daughter self-tutored and apparently above and out of harmony with her surroundings, and a lover are the characters which Ella Higginson has put into most of the stories in the collection "A Forest Orchid."† There is as little variety in the theme of the stories and in the general style of their telling as in the characters; but the author has, however, delineated the power of true love over the acts of men. The dozen stories deal with life in the Northwest.

The rapidity with which the author of "Defiant Hearts"‡ bears the reader along from one event to another is quite bewildering. The action is almost entirely in a small capital of North Germany, where upon the life and patronage of the duchess depend the income and prosperity of several persons. The betrothal of a lady-in-waiting, who is an heiress, to a poor court-official, who loves the daughter of the physician in ordinary to the duchess, is the beginning of many direful events which terminate in the ultimate happiness of the characters.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

C. W. BARDEEN, SYRACUSE, N. Y.

Grosszmann, Maximilian, P. E., Ph. D. A Working System of Child Study for Schools. 50 cts.

WILLIAM BRIGGS, TORONTO.

Thomson, John Stuart. Estabelle and Other Verse. $1.00.

CARLON & HOLLENBECK, INDIANAPOLIS.

Gilman, S. C. The Conquest of the Sioux.

EATON & MAINS, NEW YORK.

CURTS & JENNINGS, CINCINNATI.

Taylor, Edward M., D.D. George Washington, The Ideal Patriot. With Introduction by Edward Everett Hale, D.D.

Sangster, Margaret E. Life on High Levels. Familiar Talks on the Conduct of Life.

Bristol, Frank Milton. The Ministry of Art.

McDowell, W. F., Pierson, A. T., Bingham, Jennie M., Ninde, Mary Louise, Gracey, J. T., Baldwin, S. L., Oldham, W. F., Withrow, W. H. The Picket Line of Missions. With an introduction by Bishop W. X. Ninde.

The Berean Beginner's Lesson Book on the International Lessons for 1898. 15 cts.

The Berean Intermediate Lesson Book for 1898. 15 cts.

The Berean Senior Lesson Book for 1898. 15 cts.

Bamford, John M. The Greater Gospel. 50 cts.

Young, Egerton Ryerson. Three Boys in the Wild North Land. With twenty full-page illustrations by J. E. Laughlin, and various photographs.

McDougall, John. Saddle, Sled and Snowshoe. Pioneering on the Saskatchewan in the Sixties. With illustrations by J. E. Laughlin.

ELDREDGE & BROTHER, PHILADELPHIA.

Houston, Edwin J., A. M., Ph. D. (Princeton). The Elements of Natural Philosophy For the Use of Schools and Academies. Revised Edition. $1.00.

FUNK & WAGNALLS COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Crafts, Rev. Wilbur F., Ph D. Practical Christian Sociology. A series of special lectures before Princeton Theological Seminary and Marietta College. With supplemental notes and appendixes. With introduction by Joseph Cook, LL.D. Cloth, 12mo. $1.50.

Mann, The Rev. Hames. Clerical Types.

Banks, Rev. Louis Albert, D.D. The Fisherman and his Friends. A Series of Revival Sermons.

GINN & COMPANY, BOSTON.

Blaisdell, Albert F. A Practical Physiology. A Text-book for Higher Schools. $1.30.

D. C. HEATH & COMPANY, BOSTON.

Coleridge, Samuel Taylor. The Ancient Mariner. With introduction and notes by Andrew J. George, M.A.

LEE AND SHEPARD, BOSTON.

Drake, Samuel Adams. On Plymouth Rock. Illustrated. 60 cts.

LOTHROP PUBLISHING COMPANY, BOSTON.

Sidney, Margaret. Phronsie Pepper. The Last of the "Five Little Peppers." Illustrated by Jessie McDermott. $1.50.

"Pansy" (Mrs. G. R. Alden). Overruled. Illustrated. $1.50.

Beal, Mary Barnes. The Boys of Clovernook. The Story of Five Boys on a Farm. Illustrated by Etheldred B. Barry. $1.50.

JOHN MURPHY & COMPANY, BALTIMORE AND NEW YORK.

Gibbons, Cardinal James. The Ambassador of Christ.

THE MACMILLAN COMPANY, NEW YORK.

Külpe, Oswald. Introduction to Philosophy. A handbook for students of psychology, logic, ethics, æsthetics, and general philosophy. Translated from the German by W. B. Pillsbury and E. B. Titchener. $1.60.

Daniel and the Minor Prophets. Edited with an introduction and notes by Richard G. Moulton, M.A. (Camb), Ph. D. (Penn.). 50 cts.

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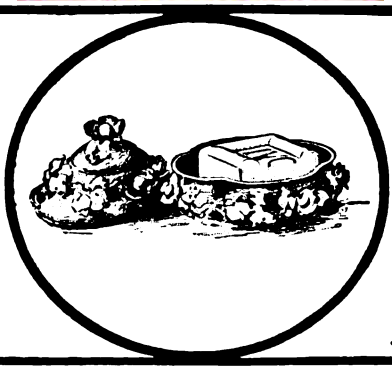

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